

The Speech Teacher

READING ROOM

UNIVERSITY
OF MICHIGAN

A PUBLICATION OF THE
SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

MAR 23 1954

Volume III

PERIODICAL
READING ROOM
Number 2

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THE FORUM • BOOK REVIEWS
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March 1954

The SPEECH TEACHER

• 1954 •

Published by
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The Speech Teacher is published four times a year in January, March, September, and November, by the Speech Association of America. Membership dues in the Speech Association of America are \$3.50 a year, of which \$3.25 is for a year's subscription to *The Speech Teacher*. Price of this issue is \$1.00. Publication office, The Artcraft Press, 10 Watson Place, Columbia, Missouri. General offices, 12 E. Bloomington St., Iowa City, Iowa. Editorial office, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida. Entered as second class matter at the Post Office at Columbia, Missouri.

NOTE TO CONTRIBUTORS

Manuscripts of articles and correspondence concerning them should be addressed to the Editor, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida.

Contributors desiring reprints of articles appearing in *The Speech Teacher* should communicate with the Artcraft Press, Columbia, Missouri, not later than fifteen days before the date of issue.

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The SPEECH TEACHER

Vol. III, No. 2

March, 1954

SPEECH IN THE SERVICE OF TYRANNY AND FREEDOM

Bower Aly

EDITOR'S NOTE: The *Speech Teacher* is pleased here to present the text of the opening address delivered by Professor Bower Aly to the Speech Association of America in convention assembled at the Hotel Statler in New York City at nine o'clock on Monday morning, December 28, 1953. Inasmuch as this address should be of interest to our readers as a speech *per se*, we are reproducing the text as spoken without attempting to make it read as an essay. The address was delivered without manuscript or notes. The text here produced was taken from an electrical transcription made at the time of delivery by Mr. Roy T. Rector of Queens College, Chairman, Speech Association of America Committee on Equipment.

The speech was widely reported in the press throughout the country. The *New York Times* for Tuesday, December 29, 1953 (p. 11) carried a story from which the following excerpt is taken:

A college professor yesterday characterized as "tyranny" the proposal by Attorney General Herbert Brownell, Jr. to compel witnesses who seek the protection of the Fifth Amendment to testify if granted immunity from criminal prosecution.

A thousand . . . speech teachers at the convention of the Speech Association of America heard the charge made by Bower Aly, Professor of Speech of the University of Missouri and former president of the association. They applauded and later a dozen congratulated him before he left the platform in the main ballroom of the Statler Hotel.

Mr. Aly (Ph.D., Columbia, 1941) is Professor of Speech and Chairman of the Department of Speech and Dramatic Art at the University of Missouri.

Professor Aly was introduced by Professor H. P. Constans of the University of Florida, then President of the Speech Association of America, as follows:

Our speaker this morning should be known to a great many of you, because he has played an important role in the Speech Association of America. Many of you undoubtedly know him as an author of textbooks in our field or as a contributor of articles in our national periodicals.

Those of you who do not know him as an author probably know him as an editor, because he has served on the editorial staff of the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and is now completing a three-year term as editor of that publication.

But if there are those among us who do not know him either as author or editor, then surely you must know of him as a speaker, because he has appeared several times on many Regional and National Convention Programs. As a speaker you know that he will be courageous, forthright, and stimulating. His thoughts are always provocative and his delivery is dynamic.

It is my personal privilege to present and our pleasure to hear Mr. Bower Aly who will speak on "Speech in the Service of Tyranny and Freedom." Mr. Aly:

Mr. Chairman, Friends: Some time ago there occurred in our family life a little incident which, on reflection, I have judged not to be irrelevant to my topic this morning and perhaps not completely uninteresting to you. To tell this little incident I shall have to reveal that

the important member of our family, by the judgment both of Mrs. Aly and myself, is our little five-year-old son, Stewart. Now he is at that happy stage of childhood where, coming into a new phenomenon, he simply absorbs it into the context of his life and moves on completely uninhibited and undeterred. When he runs across a phrase which includes a word out of the frame of his reference, he substitutes the nearest phonic equivalent. For example, you people doubtless listen to "The *Lone* Ranger," that great American epic of the radio; and we did too for a while until we discovered that since the word *lone* was completely unknown to Stewart he was saying "The *Long* Ranger," and from that time since, of course, we have listened to "The *Long* Ranger."

There is another program in our part of the country which you may have heard too. That program is usually announced with characteristic inflection and in rather strident tones: "I Was A Communist For the F.B.I." But even though we are prepared for some of the vagaries of Stewart's phonic equivalents, we were still somewhat abashed to hear him say one day, "Mommy, I am a Methodist for the F.B.I." (Laughter).

I am pleased to see that you find that little story at least mildly amusing; and of course we did too. But again, on reflection, I have been somewhat disturbed by that incident because I can remember, if I think back, that when I was a boy at the age of this youngster—and many years since that time—the story could not possibly have amused you simply because it would have been incomprehensible. When I was a boy the Methodists were perfectly respectable people, and nobody would ever have thought of suggesting that they were subversive. The Communists were wild-haired modern fanatics—"Bolshies," I

think they were called—and nobody took them seriously. And so far as I knew as a boy there was no F.B.I., or if there was an F.B.I. it existed in some precincts of Washington, and you heard very little of it.

How times have changed! How times have changed! We live in strange times indeed in this country. We live in times of charge and counter-charge, when one man suspects another, when a neighbor fears a neighbor. First in this strange period we had guilt by doubt: We are not quite certain you are all right. You haven't been cleared; therefore, you may be guilty; therefore since you may be guilty, you probably are guilty; since you probably are guilty we will treat you as though you were.

Then we had the strange phenomenon to these shores of guilt by association: Your mother-in-law once knew a man who had some connection with a fellow who belonged to the Communist party. Therefore, we had better be careful of you. You have had some kind of association with evil, and we can't trust you.

More recently we have seen what I have not yet heard defined but what must evidently exist: the very, very strange phenomenon in this country of guilt by controversy. Now the term *controversial* was once fairly descriptive of the breath of life in this country. But not long since a Bishop of the Methodist Church was denied the ancient American prerogative—you know, go out and hire a hall—denied the privilege of hiring a hall. Why? Because he was a Communist? No. Members of a House Committee had just got through clearing him on that charge. They said he wasn't a Communist. Because he was subversive? No. They declared he was not subversive. What was the charge? Well, in so many words, the powers-that-be declared, "Bishop Oxnham, you are too controver-

sial." So we have established in at least one great American city the idea that if a man is controversial, he shouldn't be allowed to speak, at least not under the ordinary auspices.

Now all of those facts I think are familiar to you. I am not so certain that you are aware of measures now pending, measures which in my judgment, because they are soberly taken by responsible persons, are much more dangerous to us, and much more provocative to thought, than any of the incidents I have thus far related.

On October 14, 1953, Mr. Herbert Brownell, Jr., the Attorney General of the United States, announced that in the coming session of Congress the Department of Justice would propose actions which would in effect nullify the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution, of the Bill of Rights, which provides that no American citizen shall be required to testify against himself.

Now I want to read to you—just in case there should be some "Methodists for the F.B.I." present—I want to read to you the proposition of this speech. The proposition is simply that the Bill of Rights, Article I, and the Bill of Rights, Article V, are in force and need to be respected. Let me remind you of the wording of Article I:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

And in Article V of the Bill of Rights occur these words:

No person . . . shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law.

Now, however plausibly maintained (and Mr. Brownell's arguments are plausible—he's against Communists, he's

against "crooks" and other malefactors) however plausibly maintained, Mr. Brownell's proposal would nullify the Fifth Amendment, which prohibits requiring a man to testify against himself. However plausibly maintained, I say, there is just one good, clear, old-fashioned word to describe what Mr. Brownell is proposing, and I intend to use this word advisedly, and I trust, semantically, accurately, and precisely. It's a word that our forefathers knew: The word is *tyranny*. There is no better word to describe it.

If Mr. Brownell's proposal is carried out, it will effectively destroy the most personal of all rights guaranteed to Americans by their Bill of Rights. In effect the proposal of the Attorney General would require citizens to incriminate themselves. In effect the proposal would violate not only the American tradition of civil rights; it would violate also the tradition of the common law, which is older than the Constitution, older than the nation. The proposal brings into the sharpest focus we have yet observed the conflict between tyranny and freedom in the republic.

Now I do not mean to say that there are no good things to be said for tyranny. It may be that at the present stage of life in this country tyranny is necessary. But I would submit that you can find no better definition of tyranny than a system of government which requires a man to convict himself *by his own testimony* of high crimes and misdemeanors.

So, as I say, we have come to strange times in this country; and I trust that with this recital you will not think it strange if I suggest to you that we—especially those of us who are engaged in speech, and the teaching of speech—that we might well justify ourselves in soberly considering the question

whether freedom or tyranny is best suited for these times.

We ought to consider the question seriously. If tyranny is being proposed we ought to be sure that we can see what is to be said for it. We ought to consider it soberly and advisedly. Thus I propose here to ask the question whether a system of tyranny or a system of freedom (both of these considered relatively) is best suited to America today. Let us keep in mind that we live, as I said, in strange times; we live in times which our forefathers could not possibly have envisioned. It may well be that freedom is not constituted to survive in the modern world—and we are interested, I take it, in survival. We are interested in survival, not just of our own persons; because, since everyone here is above the age of ten, we know that survival cannot be a personal goal. Sooner or later individually we die. We are interested in the survival of our children, our children's children, our way of life, our land, and our people. And the question soberly raised then, is this one: Is a system of freedom or a system of tyranny best adapted to the survival of this country and its people in modern times?

Bear in mind that we live now in an age of the atom and the Kremlin. Our forefathers did not know either. They could not have predicted either. Which of these systems, freedom or tyranny, is best adapted now to the survival—the physical survival—of this Republic?

There are many strong things to be said for a tyranny. It might well give us pause to recall that of the people who have lived on this planet during the past thousands of years, the great preponderance of them must have lived, and died, and spent their full time under some system of tyranny. If we look at the history of mankind closely we seem to see that our freedoms are really little is-

lands in the great sea of tyranny. Most of the peoples have lived under some kind of oligarchic or tyrannical government in which the rights of individual persons have not been respected. And this fact alone should give us reason to inquire: What are the strengths of tyranny? How are tyrannies adapted to survival?

One of the greatest strengths of the tyrannical form of government lies in the fact that the tyranny is not required to give an accounting. The modern tyranny controls the press; it controls the radio; and if there is television it controls that. The tyrant, whether he be an oligarchy or a single individual, has complete control of all of the ordinary avenues of public communication. That is a tremendous asset, if you want to survive, because you don't have to tolerate an opposition. Mr. Stalin, for example, is quoted by Mr. Churchill as having said that the one-party government is the best. The one-party government is the best because you don't worry about the opposition: you liquidate it.

A second strength of the tyrannical form of government derives from the fact that you don't have to worry about the labor force. Free labor in our sense of the word is unknown. If you need more laborers, it is easy to find them by various penal means. Enough political prisoners or refugees are found and sentenced to Siberia—and they don't go on strike. They work right along at eight, ten, twelve, fourteen, sixteen, or eighteen hours a day. We have it on good authority that they don't complain very much; or if they complain, their complaints cannot be heard. And I suspect that all of us would recognize that from the point of view of certain kinds of production of low-grade materials this might be a very effective asset. To have a disciplined, cowed, completely subordinated

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labor force would mean that you don't have to worry too much about interruptions of production; you don't have to have mediation services; you don't have to have conciliation arrangements; you don't have to worry about whether John gets another ten cents an hour or whether he is going to go on strike. It simplifies matters a great deal, doesn't it, not to worry about the labor force?

Another strength of tyranny, considered from one point of view at least, is the fact that you don't have to worry about free enterprise. You don't have the troubles of competition and the waste of products. The great Malenkov sitting in the Kremlin decides that next year the economy will produce 160,000 units of "X" or 277,000 units of "Y," and it's done without the fearful waste of letting the consumer decide what he wants to buy. In any country where you are eager to survive on a physical level, where you have nothing to waste, where every bit of goods is needed to service the military establishment, it must surely be tremendously satisfying to a dictator to know that nothing that is being produced is going to waste. There is no competition, no so-called free enterprise.

Another great strength of tyranny, I should imagine, would rest in the fact that you don't have to worry too much about uprisings and about discontent. One of the great assets is that people usually testify the way you want them to testify. Not only are you able to get a witness to incriminate himself—not only does he do it, you may encourage him by subtle means. We hear stories of injections, for example, and we hear of psychological methods of self-incrimination. And if you have a political prisoner at the bar and you wish to establish a certain state of public opinion toward him, nothing could be more effective than getting him to confess to the crimes

he committed or which perchance he didn't commit. It makes very little difference, of course, to the tyranny so long as the job is done. And I think we have reason to believe that the job is fairly effectively done in the greatest of modern tyrannies—Soviet Russia. Well now I suspect that if I knew more about this subject of tyranny—I must confess that it is a strange subject for an American to be dealing with—if I knew more about the subject I might give you even other strengths which would appear to be obvious, ways in which tyranny may be the wave of the future, ways in which tyranny may be better adapted to survival than freedom.

What might be said on the other side of the question? Is freedom defenseless? Has freedom no power? Are there no advantages in this titanic struggle between freedom and tyranny to rest upon the side of free men? Well, I submit that there are three great strengths inherent in the free system of government, a free system of society.

In the first place, I think we may agree with President Eisenhower that there is no natural force in the world stronger than the voluntary cooperation of free men. If you are interested in the kind of labor which can be done by beasts, I suspect you can get it done by serfs, by slaves, by the subjects of a tyrant; but if you want intelligent, cooperative, thoughtful labor at a higher level of production where technology is likely to succeed, then I would suggest to you that you might be more effective to have that labor performed by free men, even though they may be able to differ with you and to cause certain disquietude in ranks of management and in the ranks of labor unions. In other words, there would appear to be, as President Eisenhower says, better workmen in a free society. We get a better

kind of work done when men feel that they are working together in a cooperative enterprise.

I would suggest to you in the second place that one of the great strengths of freedom at this time arises from the fact that, if you will accept this country to be the leader of the free world, we need friends. Now there are many people who do not recognize that fact. They are not confined, I think, to either of our great major political parties, and they are not confined, as some Easterners like to think, to the Middle West. But there are people who do not recognize the fact that we need friends *now* in other parts of the world. I shall not attempt to prove this statement but simply set it down, for I think it is axiomatic. We need friends. How can we get them? Where shall we look for friends? Shall we find our friends among those who like tyranny, those who are convinced that tyranny is the best surviving form of government and the form of government best adapted to survival? It would seem to be very difficult to tear the subjects of tyrannies away from Soviet Russia. Soviet Russia has preempted the position of tyranny in the modern world. We would have very, very little fortune in trying to get the satellites away from Russia on the ground that we can run a better tyranny than Russia can run. In the first place, they might doubt that we could do it; and, in the second place, they are pretty effectively controlled, unless all of our ordinary sources of intelligence are mistaken. I would suggest to you that we are likely to find our best and most faithful friends in the modern world among those peoples who like ourselves believe in the dignity of the free man, who believe as the British do and the French do, and many people in Western Europe, people all over the world for

that matter, who believe that the shape of things to come may very well rest in freedom and not in tyranny. Of course this is not a proposition that can be proved beyond peradventure, but it would seem to me to be reasonable, as I trust it will to you, that in looking for friends we have more fertile ground over here among the free peoples than we are likely to find among the subjects of tyrants. So I would suggest as one of the great strengths of our free Republic, the fact that we have an opportunity to create freedom and to advance freedom and to obtain friends in the free countries of the world.

A third strength of the free system, peculiar to it and not shared to any large degree by tyranny, is that the free system is more productive. It is more productive as demonstrated time and again in this country. During the Second World War, and I say this without any disparagement of our Armed Forces, during the Second World War the great miracle of America was not military victories—other nations won military victories—the great miracle of America was the river, the stream, the ocean of goods and services which poured from our fields and factories. Nothing like it had ever been seen before in the world: A major miracle of achievement in terms of production of goods and services produced by free men. And I think it is fair to say that the technological progress which has been made by this country would not have been possible under a tyranny. The late Wendell Willkie, who was wise about many things, remarked in some of his speeches that in order to be free we must be productive. We cannot remain free unless we are productive. I would suggest to you the corollary that we cannot be productive unless we are free, and that productivity of goods and services may in

the last and final term decide who wins the modern war between tyranny and freedom. And I would suggest to you that perhaps the greatest strength which the free men have in the modern world is their ability to produce goods and services in almost unlimited quantities.

Now there are doubtless other things to be said for freedom. I would not undertake to make a catalog. I would like to suggest what I think are two mistakes about our advocacy of freedom, about our understanding of it in the modern world, and I would suggest these to you as a ground upon which you and I might stand in our contemplation of freedom and tyranny and, further, in our advocacy to other people.

I wonder whether we have not done freedom an injustice in resting its arguments often upon a sentimental ground. I well remember in my youth that I was inspired by—almost enamoured of—the phrase attributed to Voltaire which doubtless you have heard and perhaps have had a similar experience with: "I do not believe a word you say, but I will defend to the death your right to say it." Now that strikes me today as it did then as being a noble sentiment, but I believe today that the arguments for freedom, at least in terms of survival, rest on grounds more relevant than these somewhat sentimental words attributed to Voltaire. If I did not believe that then I would tell you, frankly and honestly, that I would not attempt to defend freedom in the modern world. If I believed for example that by succumbing to tyranny—Mr. Brownell's or any other form—we could somehow avoid the coming catastrophe of the war with Russia; or if I believed that we could achieve world-wide peace I, for one, would not have the hardihood to say that I will defend to the death your right to speak. It may be that a part of my timidity

grows from the fact that I have two sons in the Air Force; and if I could, by denying myself my American-born right to speak, save them from becoming a flaming torch some day, and dropping out of the skies in flames, I would do it; and I would never speak again on any subject that was controversial. You may not realize what a statement this is for a Missourian to make; but it's true. Or if I could save either of these boys from the worse fate of having sometime in the next decade or the next twenty years to push the button which drops an atomic bomb upon a sleeping city, I would still do it; I would cancel all my American rights to free speech. In other words, my position in this matter of the warfare between tyranny and freedom is not the position of Voltaire, however noble it may be. My position is one I believe would appeal to many Americans. I would call it a practical or pragmatic position, that freedom may be stronger than tyranny. Freedom may be stronger. We cannot know for certain until the test comes.

And I would submit this further reference here since we cannot know for certain whether freedom is stronger than tyranny, I would submit this further thought that even if freedom were not quite so strong as tyranny, as a system, we might be well advised in the management of the present problem, to stick with what we have rather than change to a new system which we are not well fitted to manage. Suppose that there is some advantage in this great list of arguments for tyranny, suppose that tyranny is perhaps a little bit stronger, all things considered, as a form of life than freedom, would we be wise at this juncture in our society, would we be wise at this stage in America to change over, to go from freedom to tyranny?

Imagine now, stop to think! In order

to manage a successful tyranny you have to be ruthless. No squeamishness will do. If people get out of line, you liquidate them. Are Americans likely to be good liquidators? Well, not in their more normal moments. Right now there might be some people that would like to liquidate others, but it isn't a normal course of affairs in America.

In order to run a successful tyranny you have to have experience of it. Do you think that we could vie with the Russians in managing a successful tyranny? The Russians, after all, have had experience now for at least two generations, at least a part of two generations. Do you think we can beat them at their own game? I would suggest to you that tyranny is not an art at which the Americans can beat the Russians.

And so I suppose the culmination of my thought here about the relative advantages of tyranny and freedom as a course of action leading to survival of our Republic in the modern world, the culmination of it is that both freedom and tyranny have their relative strengths and advantages—and it is impossible perhaps for us to know for certain which is the stronger. But that in this hesitancy or doubt as to which is the stronger we would be well advised to keep the ground we have rather than to leave the ground we have and to try other ground upon which we are not prepared to fight.

May I suggest to you that beyond the practical or the pragmatic aspect, there may be realms of the spirit into which we cannot enter with intellectual arguments? It may be that when the final battle is fought between freedom and tyranny, whenever it is fought, and it is won by the forces of free men, we will discover that there is an innate quality of the human spirit which responds better to the illusions, if you like, or to the beliefs of freedom rather than to the doctrines and the ideas of any kind of tyranny. I hope that is true, and I am confident that you share my hope. I would suggest that if you do share this belief or this hope that there is a special obligation resting upon you, upon each of you, as teachers of speech, as educated men and women, as leaders of your community to advance the doctrines of freedom as being the best ground on which to fight the war of survival. In other words, resistance to tyrants is love of one's country today. Resistance to tyranny is in the long run in this country an assistance to our national survival as well as to the survival of the ideals of this Republic. And even if it were not, what would it profit us if we gained the whole world and lost our own soul? What would it profit us, indeed, if we were to lose our own soul and in so doing and in consequence lose the whole world? (Applause).

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LOGIC AND STRATEGY IN DEVELOPING THE DEBATE CASE

Arthur N. Kruger

MOST textbook accounts on developing a debate case are, I believe, fragmentary, unrealistic, and oftentimes misleading. Instead of a thoroughgoing analysis of the basic issues, they consist usually of a short chapter repeating the clichés of past writers on "need, desirability, and practicability," elusive abstractions which are rarely considered with regard to real debate situations or to the basic problems of semantics and logic involved. Having only superficial analyses to guide them, most student debaters construct cases characterized by equivocation, oversimplification, and other forms of illogicality. In the following pages I shall attempt to substantiate these charges and simultaneously indicate the lines along which I believe a debate subject must be considered. Since most high school and college debates are on questions traditionally known as "policy" and since such questions also involve those traditionally known as "fact," the present discussion will concern itself with the former, namely, those which affirm that something *should* be done.

To digress for a moment, the line between fact and policy questions is not always precise. For most fact questions involve an evaluation—something is affirmed to be good or bad ("Communism is a Menace to World Peace," "Beauty Contests are Pernicious," "The British Empire is Decadent"); and eval-

uations in turn imply either a remedy or a preventive. This course of action, however, though implied, is not explored—its possible drawbacks or advantages, its practicability or impracticability, etc. In policy questions, on the other hand, the course of action (whether the building of a new waterway project, the passage of a new labor law, or the formation of a new world organization) is a pivotal consideration. But before any new course of action can be justified and explored, the status quo must be evaluated; thus, all policy questions involve those of fact. Some are actually little more than questions of fact, as for example: "Capital Punishment Should Be Abolished," "Eighteen-year-olds Should Be Permitted To Vote," "Communists Should Be Barred From Teaching in College." The course of action involved in each of these questions is relatively simple and would be implicit if the latter were phrased as questions of fact, as well they might be: "Capital Punishment Is Morally Wrong," "Eighteen-year-olds Are Mature Enough To Vote," "Communist College Teachers Are Incompetent Teachers." Since most high school and college debates involve fairly complex questions of policy, the present discussion will concentrate upon such questions.

Developing a debate case, most students of debate technique would agree, is largely a matter of determining the significant issues involved in the debate proposition. To this end, two things

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must be thoroughly explored and understood:

1. the key terms of the particular question, and
2. the "stock" issues which apply to all questions

In a previous article, "Interpreting the Debate Question,"¹ I discussed at some length the problems involved in defining the terms of a question and some of the implications concerning the organization of the debate case which a proper understanding of the question suggests. Summarizing briefly, one must understand the nature of an evaluation and the implications of a statement containing the word "should." Among other things, I pointed out, an evaluation is a judgment which implies the existence of a fixed standard or model. Something is rated good or bad insofar as it measures up to this standard. In all policy questions not only is a standard or end implicitly recognized but the question itself affirms that a specific means (World Government, Federal Grants, the Enactment of a FEP Law, etc.) should be used to accomplish this end (world peace, a democratic society, a fair distribution of goods, etc.). In view of this fact, one of the first tasks of the debater is to determine specifically what the affirmative program or the status quo seeks to accomplish. (On rare occasions the question itself specifies this end, as for example, "The NATO Countries Should Form a Federated Union For the Purpose of Insuring World Peace." However, during the past eight years only one National Debate Topic was specific in this regard.²) Only after determining this end is the debater ready to inquire into *how*

it may best be achieved. The implication here is clear: to understand the debate proposition and to construct a logical case based upon it, a debater must thoroughly understand cause-and-effect reasoning, a fact which becomes increasingly evident when we analyze the stock issues.

Affirmative Approach to the Need Issue

The term "need," being very abstract and relative, is highly ambiguous when divorced from a given context. There are many kinds and degrees of need—for food, spiritual sustenance, companionship, vocational training, etc.; "great" need, "moderate" need, "little" need, etc. Since the word has no clear meaning apart from its context, what then does it mean within the context of the debate question? It is surprising how many debaters fail to consider this obvious and basic question. Most debaters confuse the two usual meanings assigned, implicitly as a rule, to the term: *need* for changing the status quo and *need* for the affirmative program. Clearly, these two meanings, though related, are entirely different; and failure to recognize this fact causes much equivocation in the average debate. As we shall see in a moment, the first meaning relates to the "need" issue, the second to "desirability."

Our first task then is to consider the question, Is there a need for changing the status quo? Such a question is far more complex than the average debater realizes and cannot be answered simply, yes or no, by citing certain evils or gains which have come about under the status quo. This, the usual practice, leaves at least half of the question unanswered. For example, suppose my

by Means of Annual Grants. (Italics mine.) More simply, the question is Resolved, That the Federal Government Should Annually Grant Aid to the Various States For the Purpose of Equalizing Educational Opportunities in Tax-Supported Schools. (Italics mine.)

¹ *Bulletin of the Debating Association of Pennsylvania Colleges*, Vol. XVIII, No. 22 (December, 1952), pp. 13 ff.

² Resolved, That the Federal Government Should Adopt a Policy of Equalizing Educational Opportunity in Tax-Supported Schools

automobile had two flat tires, a dented fender, a set of faulty spark plugs, and needed painting badly, would anyone, on the basis of these "evils," be justified in asserting that I should change my car for another? Obviously not. Yet it is a common practice of debaters to cite certain evils, regarding, for example, the status of our educational system or the existence of job discrimination, and then to proclaim that they have shown the need for their program, Federal Aid to Education or a Compulsory FEP Law. Not only does this procedure fail to prove the need for a particular program, but it does not even prove the need for changing the status quo, as the example of the automobile shows. Why cannot one simply repair existing defects and keep the original automobile instead of going to the great expense of getting another. Apparently, then, a second requirement of the need issue is to prove that the status quo *cannot* be repaired, and to prove this point we must show that the status quo is *inherently* defective, that no amount of repair or patching will eliminate the deep-rooted flaw or flaws causing the trouble. Surprising as it may seem, about one out of every ten debaters ever considers this point systematically. What is called for here is an inquiry into *why* the so-called evils have resulted under the status quo, what particularly in the status quo has *caused* them.

To illustrate both major aspects of the need issue, let us take some actual cases. Suppose we start with the question "Resolved, That the Federal Government Should Adopt a Permanent Program of Wage and Price Controls." Our first task then is to fix the meaning of "status quo" within the framework of the question and determine the rationale of the status quo or affirmative

program. This can be accomplished by some such process as the following:

- Q. What is the aim of a permanent program of price and wage controls (of any economic program for that matter)?
- A. Adequate production and fair distribution of goods and services for all (or most) of the American people at all times.
- Q. How is this goal supposed to be reached at present?
- A. By the competitive enterprise system.
- Q. What particular phase of this system does the proposition suggest we examine?
- A. How prices and wages are determined.
- Q. How are they determined at present?
- A. By the law of supply and demand. Also, they are influenced by certain monetary and fiscal policies, and in emergency periods, when extreme shortages occur, they are fixed by direct price and wage controls.

A working definition of the status quo would then be: the determination of prices and wages according to the law of supply and demand under the competitive enterprise system, this determination being influenced indirectly by certain governmental monetary and fiscal policies and, in periods of extreme shortages, directly by price and wage controls. Development of Need Issue: Is there a need for changing the status quo (as defined above)?

- A. Has the status quo produced evils?

The evils always relate directly to the rationale or end that has been established. In this case, the end being to maximize the output of consumable goods and services, all instances which appear contrary to this end would be evil. Such instances would be expressed in terms of economic losses as to goods, services, and money. The general proposition would be supported in the usual manner by examples, statistics, and authoritative opinion. It would be stated affirmatively thus:

The status quo is defective, *for* (typical evidence would consist of statistics on the business cycle, depressions, inflations, unemployment, loss of purchasing power, etc.—all indicating economic losses and a situation contrary to the desired aim).

- B. Why has the status quo produced these evils?

This general proposition would be supported by cause-and-effect reasoning. The nature of the

flaws in the status quo causing the evils would be considered. The proposition might be stated affirmatively thus:

The status quo is defective *because*

1. There is no known predictable base for estimating the needs and desires of the people
2. There are no effective checks to stop sudden rises or declines in prices
3. Self-interest of monopolies interferes with the law of supply and demand

Here, to repeat, the debater must show that these flaws render the status quo incapable of repair, make it inherently defective; otherwise he is not justified in asking that the system be changed.

The foregoing distinction between *for* and *because* is important and must be understood. Confusion is apt to arise because in certain contexts the terms are synonymous; as used here, however, they are distinctly different, a difference which may be explained this way:

for indicates that the statement which follows it is a *reason for believing* the statement which precedes it;

because indicates that the statement which follows it is the *cause of the effect* described in the statement which precedes it. For further clarification, consider the following sentences:

He is a competent teacher because he is genuinely interested in the problems of his students.

He is a competent teacher because he knows his subject thoroughly.

He is a competent teacher, for he was just given an increase in salary.

He is a competent teacher, for he holds a first-class teaching certificate.

In the first two sentences "because" conveys a cause-and-effect relationship between two statements. "Being a competent teacher" is given as the effect of the cause "being interested in the problems of his students" and "knowing his subject thoroughly." The cause precedes the effect in time. The sentences say in effect: Knowing his subject *caused*

or led to his competence as a teacher; interest in his pupils' problems *caused* or led to his competence as a teacher. In the last two sentences, on the other hand, "for" introduces a statement which constitutes a reason for believing the first statement, the two statements being coexistent in time. The second is really an attempt to explain the first by the method of parts and factors. Being given an increase in salary and holding a first-class teaching certificate did not cause or lead to his competence but are a sign of it; they constitute reasons for believing that he is competent. The sentences might be rephrased as:

He was just given an increase in salary; therefore, he is a competent teacher.

He holds a first-class teaching certificate; therefore, he is a competent teacher.

To continue with our sample case, since effects in themselves are usually causes of other effects, further causal analysis enables us to expand effectively the two main sub-points of the need issue. For example, discrimination against a certain group of individuals, an evil effect itself, is in turn a cause of reduced living standards, which in turn may become a cause of crime, which in turn may become a cause of many other things. Or, taking another line, discrimination at home may lead to damaging Soviet propaganda, distrust of the U. S. by nations having large colored or oriental populations, such as India and Pakistan, and a general weakening of U. S. prestige abroad. This in turn may lose us the support of much-needed allies. To express the idea another way, most of the ends we seek are in turn means to other ends. For example, we seek playgrounds as a means of combatting juvenile delinquency; decreased juvenile delinquency in turn leads to a more law-abiding community, which in turn leads to the greater well-being

of its members, and so on. Our example, then, developed according to this principle, might take the following form:

I. Need

A. The present system of price and wage determination (supply and demand, indirect controls, and direct controls in emergency periods) has failed to give the great majority of American people a consistently adequate supply of goods at fair consistent prices, for

1. Depressions—8 major ones (give dates)

a. Unemployment, breadlines, soup
eff-} kitchens (give statistics)

ects} b. Loss of national income (amount)
(additional effects, time permitting:
growth of crime and juvenile delin-
quency, growth of nervous disorders and
mental breakdowns, lowered health stand-
ards and increased malnutrition and sick-
ness, labor unrest and violence, under-
mining of faith in the economic system
and growth of socialism and communism)

2. Inflations (stress the present—great-
est: 1939-41 dollar equals 53c)

a. Fixed income groups hurt (specify)
b. Savings depleted (specify)
c. Labor unrest: strikes and stop-
page (stress 1945-6 figs.)

B. The present system has failed because

1. Immediate Cause of

a. Depression (excessive amount of
goods and services over money)

causal } i. overexpansion
factors } ii. overspeculation
iii. overcapitalization
iv. overextension of credit

b. Inflation (excessive amount of
money over goods and services)

cause } i. shortages created by a war
economy

2. Underlying causal factors (inherent
weaknesses)

cause of } a. no sound basis for planning future
cause: } needs

B, 1, a, b } b. no effective checks for stopping
rapid fluctuations (runaway spiral
or crash)

c. oligopolistic self-interest

3. Present machinery cannot work (re-
late to above weaknesses)

a. Supply and demand mechanism
b. Indirect controls

i. Taxation (raising or lower-
ing)

ii. Public works (encouraged or
discouraged)

eff-} iii. Saving or spending (encour-
ects} aged or discouraged)

iv. Federal Reserve requirement
(raising or lowering)

v. Federal Reserve Open Market
operations (buying or selling)

vi. Credit restrictions (raising or
lowering)

The order of arguments, of course, particularly in part B, is not fixed. One may choose to work backwards from effects to cause to cause, or forward from cause to effect to effect. Thus, in the above example one might choose to consider the deep-rooted cause first (B,2) and work forward to the immediate cause (B,1). In many cases an elaborate breakdown of causal factors would not be feasible. On the other hand, some cases, such as the one we have chosen to develop, are quite complex and contain more material than a debater could use. This being so, he would naturally select those arguments which made the strongest case, being guided by the anticipation of those most likely to come under heavy negative attack. Actual debate experience would indicate periodic shifts in emphasis.

Negative Approach to the Need Issue

A negative team may of course concede the need (that is, concede that the status quo is inherently defective) and still win the debate. Owing to the nature of proof, a negative team theoretically need prove only one issue conclusively to win. For, according to Aristotle's Third Law of Thought, The Law of Contradiction, "Nothing can be both A and not-A," or "A proposition, P, cannot be both true and false." It follows that if two propositions contradict one another, both cannot be true, and if one is proved to be true, the

other must be false. Applied to debate, if a single negative proposition (that is, a major proposition) is proved true, the affirmative case, really an elaborate theory, no matter how true in part, cannot be true. However, where debate subjects are concerned, proof is never absolutely conclusive and a negative team which chooses to concentrate on only one issue does so at a great risk. The strategy is unquestionably a poor one.

Where the negative wishes to concede the need and emphasize the second and third issues, we have a somewhat different situation. Here the negative may do one of two things: present a counter-proposal or attempt to prove that the affirmative plan would not solve the problem and could not work. Neither of these courses is strongly recommended. The first assumes a burden of proof and thus the negative foregoes its one natural advantage over the affirmative. In assuming this burden, the negative cannot attack the affirmative case as directly as it otherwise can. However, counter-plans may sometimes be used to good advantage, particularly where the evidence clearly favors the "affirmative need." And a good counter-plan, carefully thought out, can give the negative the advantage of a surprise attack. In all fairness to the affirmative, however, the judge is obliged to consider that the negative, in proposing a counter-plan, has yielded considerable ground (the need) and must come up with strong arguments in the remaining issues to disprove the affirmative case. This does not mean that the affirmative relinquishes its burden of proof, for no matter what else it does, the affirmative must "prove" the proposition. It means, rather, that the negative, among the many choices open to it, has taken a rather difficult one, one involving a

burden of proof, in order to disprove the affirmative proposition. If it can successfully carry this burden and show a more effective program, then by the Law of Contradiction, the affirmative claim cannot be true. This, as we see, is a somewhat roundabout way of disproving the affirmative proposition, and since there are more direct ways of doing the same thing, the strategy is not strongly recommended.

"Counter-plan" by the way, being a relative term, is somewhat difficult to pin down. When a negative suggests modifications of the status quo to cope with what he has tried to prove are relatively minor imperfections, is he proposing a counter-plan? By no means. A counter-plan is an alternate solution to a problem agreed upon by both sides. Thus in proposing such a plan, the negative first concedes the need (and all it implies).

The second course is recommended even less not only because it lightens the affirmative's burden by permitting the affirmative to concentrate on two issues instead of three but because most judges are prejudiced against a purely negative approach, negative in the sense of not solving the problem conceded to exist.

To clash on the need issue is generally the soundest strategy, for it forces the affirmative to carry its full burden of proof. A solid attack here can stop the affirmative in its tracks, for the latter could not feel free to go on to a solution until it had established a real "need." Any discussion of issues two and three would be purely academic unless one were proved. Such an approach is also constructive in the sense of problem-solving.

In developing the negative need issue, then, we must go through the same preliminaries as those for the affirmative:

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the terms and status quo defined within the whole context of the question and an end or standard agreed upon. The issue itself is also divided in much the same way but with different emphasis and some modifications.

Development of No Need

A. There is no need for (drastically) changing the status quo, for:

Since we are seeking to establish a favorable evaluation, evidence of achievements and gains under the status quo would be cited here. Again, our evidence will relate to the agreed end or rationale, for all instances which appear to further or accomplish this end are good. Typical evidence for our example case would consist of details illustrating the American standard of living—the amount of goods and services available to the mass of American people now as compared, perhaps, with that in past years or in other countries. Taken in relation to the affirmative argument, this step actually seeks to redefine the nature of the problem; that is, it does not deny the existence of a problem, or of certain evils, but places the “problem” in a new context where it can no longer be regarded as very serious. Eventually, of course, it will be argued that the affirmative program is uncalled for because it is a drastic approach to an insignificant problem. You don’t perform a serious operation on a patient when he is showing distinct signs of good health or recovery.

B. There is no need because:

Here the causes (contained within the status quo) responsible for the achievements cited in A are discussed. The attempt is made here to show that these achievements are not accidental or fortuitous but are a product of the very machinery of the status quo. Taking our test case, the negative would point to the free enterprise profit system, the supply and demand principle, as the prime factor responsible for the high standard of living, responsible for the incentive of the people to advance, and responsible for the most efficient allocation of goods and services. It might be pointed out that other countries, notably Russia, are also blessed with natural resources but that our particular economic system makes possible the most effective use of these resources. Thus A and B seek to establish that the status quo, if not perfect, at least approaches perfection, is perhaps 80 to 90 per cent perfect.

There remains now the question of the imperfections as cited by the affirmative and seen in their new light by the negative. It is intellectually dishonest, and poor debate practice, to contend in the face of the affirmative evidence that *no* evils exist. Moreover, an extreme position is always more difficult to defend than a moderate one. For this reason one should hesitate to use words like “always,” “never,” “all,” “no,” “every,” and “cure.” Such words are out of place in inductive arguments concerning complex phenomena like human relationships; the more moderate language, being more honest, is also more persuasive. Accordingly, few systems, if at all complex, are ever perfect; so there is certainly no harm in admitting that the status quo is not perfect. The question is, how imperfect is it? This the negative answered in Parts A and B: very moderately imperfect, perhaps 10 to 20 per cent. This point being clear, the negative should now proceed in the remaining part of the need issue to show how, by minor modifications, the imperfections may be eliminated or mitigated (a better word because less extreme), thus making the status quo perfect or nearly so. Needless to add, when this condition obtains, a change is uncalled for or not needed. Why change perfection? The development of this part of the issue would be as follows:

C. Causes of the minor imperfections of the status quo:

The causes are explored in an effort to show that they are circumstantial or accidental and not inherent in the system.

D. Modifications of the status quo can mitigate the imperfections:

The best way to eliminate an effect is to eliminate its cause. Thus, having determined in part C the cause of the imperfections, we now proceed to show how various small changes in the machinery of the status quo would

eliminate the cause. Sometimes, such changes may also attack the effect (imperfections) directly. So much the better if they do both. Translated into terms of the example case, these points might take the following form:

C. Up to now fluctuations in the economy have been caused by:

1. A sharp disparity between money and goods, this disparity in turn being caused by a lack of effective measures to control the flow of money. This is not an inherent flaw in the status quo. Certain measures for regulating this flow, existent today, like the increased powers of the Federal Reserve System and investment regulations, were non-existent during past depressions; others, such as anti-trust laws, are not enforced as rigidly as possible; still others, such as taxation, the Federal Reserve quota, credit restrictions, Government monetary and fiscal policies, are not utilized to the fullest extent. Individual shortcomings can be corrected; no need to eliminate the system as a whole. If monopoly, for example, is bad, why do away with the competitive system? Do away with monopoly by means of better anti-trust legislation and enforcement powers. Why burn down the house to get rid of some rats?

2. Outside factors like war or threats of war; these cannot be blamed on a given system, for any system would have to contend with them. Emergency controls, which we already have and though not attractive, are the best way of coping with these factors.

D. Explain in greater detail how the flow of money can be regulated by various indirect controls, slightly modified and strengthened, and by direct controls in emergency periods. Present direct controls as the lesser of two evils, less evil than the dislocation to the economy which would result from war production, this outside factor for which the economy itself cannot be blamed.

Like the affirmative, the negative, were it to develop all points thoroughly, would have more material than it could use. The emphasis, therefore, which it places on the various components of its case is contingent upon two factors: the nature of the case itself and the emphasis of the first affirmative presentation. Let us consider these individually.

Some cases are inherently strong or weak in certain respects, strong, for example, in need, weak in practicability. Good debate strategy, like all strategy, calls for exploiting the vulnerability of one's opponents while pushing one's own natural advantages. To be more specific, last year's question on a compulsory FEP law is, from the affirmative standpoint, much stronger in need than in practicability, while from the negative standpoint the reverse holds true. The opposite might be said for the 1949-50 collegiate question, on the Non-Communist Organization, though perhaps not to quite the same degree. Incidentally, such knowledge would come only from a thorough familiarity with both sides of the question. Acting on such knowledge, a negative debater on FEPC, for example, might choose to cut down on the need issue so as to have more time for the other two issues. An affirmative team, anticipating such an attack, as well it might, would likewise emphasize practicability at the expense of the need.

Now let us consider the second factor, the emphasis of the first affirmative presentation. In a way, the first affirmative speaker sets the tempo for the entire debate. Being first, he naturally does not adapt to something he has heard but delivers a prepared or "canned" speech.³ Succeeding speakers—and this includes the first negative—must adapt their material to the preceding presentation. Although this tactic calls for a certain dexterity and a broad familiarity with both sides of the question, it constitutes a distinct advantage; to forego it deliberately would be poor strategy. In high school debates one is not surprised

³ For this reason the first affirmative position is the easiest one on the squad. In ascending difficulty the other positions would probably be second affirmative, first negative, and second negative.

by the canned speech, even the canned rebuttal, although even high school students, if taught properly, are capable of far more than they ordinarily show. In college debates canning is inexcusable. Not only does the canned speech make for a dull debate—like two boxers fanning the air in different directions—but it is manifestly poor strategy since it prevents a team from properly defending its case or fully exploiting the weaknesses of its opponents' case. This may be done by attacking weak arguments and pointing out serious omissions in the opposing case. For example, the affirmative, as we have seen, has certain fixed obligations; if these are not properly shouldered, it is to the negative's advantage to point out this fact. Again, a sound knowledge of both sides of the question plus the ability to think on one's feet makes this possible. These considerations, by the way, influence the negative development of not only the need but also the other issues.

It should be mentioned in passing that every debate reveals certain areas of agreement and disagreement, which the debaters should pinpoint as quickly as possible. Points on which the teams agree should of course be set aside, and a direct clash should occur on the points of disagreement. This procedure not only makes for an interesting debate but also clears the air of much fog. Where real concessions are made by either team, explicitly or not, and these are pointed out by the opposing team, the judge is obliged to keep this fact in mind throughout the debate and consider it when rendering a decision. Unfortunately, inexperienced judges often permit themselves to be swayed by peripheral arguments, overlooking completely the total context in which these arguments are presented. For example,

suppose in a debate on a National FEP Law the negative based most of its case on the argument that the meaning of discrimination is so elusive that acts of discrimination could not be determined under such a law or under any law. Such an argument amounts to hiding behind a semantic cloud and is thus peripheral or trivial. It resembles Stuart Chase's argument that since "fascism" cannot be defined precisely, it is nothing to worry about. The argument in effect seeks to hide or deny a reality by word manipulation. Now, of course, it is up to the opposing debater, and not the judge, to point out the weakness of such an argument. Undoubtedly the team using it will be prepared for a counterattack and, if it is basing much of its case on such an argument, will undoubtedly have a great deal to say about it. Conceivably it may even "carry" this point. Would it, therefore, have won the debate? Certainly not. For the judge is obliged to consider the basic issues as presented by the affirmative and the attack made on those issues. If a negative team chooses to make an issue of a trivial point and in so doing neglects the real issues of the debate, it deserves to be penalized for this tactic. And it matters not whether the affirmative team, after presenting its case, chooses to argue at length on this point and "loses" it; for the judge must always keep in mind the total context of the argument and recognize that the negative in this instance conceded, though implicitly by omission, most of the affirmative case.

Unfortunately, some judges do not feel compelled to discriminate between what is peripheral and what is germane in a debate. By being wholly "uncritical"—completely impartial, they believe—they only foster sophistry. The judge is not a *tabula rasa*; he must have

standards for judging what is important or unimportant, what is reasonable or unreasonable; just as the debaters must have standards of measurement upon which they must agree before proceeding to disagree. Obviously, this is not to say that a judge must be partial or prejudge either side. When necessary, he must vote for what he knows are weak cases, provided the opposing side did little to point out the weakness. Often he must render a decision to a team for the unhappy reason that it wasn't as bad as the other team.

To be able to differentiate between important and trivial issues, the judge, as well as the debaters, must thoroughly understand both sides of the question and know something about the nature of proof. It is regrettable that many debate teams manage to win consistently with flimsy cases or by means of pretty obvious equivocations. Last year, for example, certain successful teams based their case on the issue of State versus Federal FEPC (a peripheral issue, I believe, in this particular question), or upon public opinion polls (also peripheral and quite possibly irrelevant), or upon a plan that would come into being five years hence (an obvious equivocation). One must conclude that either the opposing debaters were poor or that the judges failed to consider the total context of the argument in question and permitted themselves to be swayed by peripheral arguments, no doubt glibly presented.

Before leaving the question of negative strategy, a few words are in order regarding the fairly common practice of negative teams of winding up with a series of canned questions for the affirmative. This practice is dishonest not only because it seeks to divert the affirmative, a "red herring" as it were, but because it "begs the question." The

fallacy of question-begging is essentially the use of unwarranted assumptions; and such questions, since they are divorced from a specific context, unsupported, that is, merely assume their relevance. Although framed as questions, they are really mere assertions, worth no more than any other unsupported assertion. This does not mean, of course, that teams may not question one another; but they may do so on only two conditions: they must "support" the question by pointing out specifically its relevance to an opposing argument, or they may ask for clarification or support of a point introduced by the opposing team.

To illustrate these conditions, let us take the national college question of two years ago, "Resolved, That the Non-Communist Nations Should Form a New International Organization." Although the question of sovereignty is central to a discussion of this proposition, the first negative speaker, anticipating the second affirmative speech, has no right to ask at the end of his speech, "Will the nations of your new organization be sovereign?" He may, if he wishes, anticipate an affirmative point (a procedure usually inadvisable, by the way) and discuss the question of sovereignty. Then he would be within his rights to put the question. Or he may defer this discussion and ensuing question to his colleague, who has heard the entire affirmative construction and can better relate his material to theirs.

To illustrate the second condition apropos negative questions, if an affirmative speaker were to point out that their proposed non-Communist organization would combat Communist propaganda by a Voice of America program, the negative may now legitimately ask for some specific clarification of this program, to wit, "Is it 'new' or 'in-

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ternational' in scope?" Of course, where general principles are involved, questions calling for overly detailed explanations are unjustified and could rightly be dismissed on these grounds by the opposing team. Such a question would be, "How often will the members of your organization meet?" or "How much salary per year will the various delegates receive?" Not being crucial to any basic issue, such a question would also be irrelevant, as an opposing speaker might point out to the detriment of the team asking such a question.

Unfortunately, many judges never think of penalizing a team for asking a series of unsupported questions; ironically enough, they usually penalize the other team for "passing over" such questions. One of the finest debaters I ever heard was given an adverse decision in a certain debate because, according to the judge, he chose to "ignore" a battery of questions by relating them to one big question and answering that. The questions, incidentally, involving complicated economics, were such that it would have taken him more than thirty minutes to answer them all properly.⁴

Having considered the affirmative and negative aspects of the need issue, let us now consider the second basic issue, desirability and its counterpart undesirability.

Affirmative Approach to the Second Issue: Desirability

Up to this point the affirmative has shown the status quo to be inherently defective, i.e., has proved the need for changing it. Now in the second issue the affirmative logically proceeds to solve the problem raised in the first. A true solution or remedy is one

which eliminates not only the evil effects but also the underlying cause of those effects. A doctor, for example, in treating a rash not only prescribes an ointment to ease the irritation but endeavors to diagnose the cause of the rash, the eating of tomatoes perhaps, and in this manner to eliminate the rash altogether. The prime desirability of any solution is, needless to say, that it is a real solution, that it actually eliminates what it is designed to eliminate. Thus if we could show that a permanent program of price and wage controls would end extreme fluctuations or that a national compulsory FEP Law would effectively discourage discrimination by attacking the underlying causal factors of discrimination, we would certainly be showing the desirability of our program. To embellish our argument we might now cite additional advantages growing out of our program, additional effects really, growing out of our new cause (the solution). These effects would be just the opposite of those resulting from the basic evil cited in the first part of the need. For the sake of variety, let us take last year's national college question (FEPC) to illustrate these points:

A. The Solution or Plan

Since we are dealing with a complex problem, we need to explain our solution, at least in its broad details, before showing its application. This step actually lays the groundwork for the third issue, practicability, and is an attempt to forestall any negative charge that the affirmative is "visionary" and "unrealistic." By coming up with a specific "hard as a rock" program, the affirmative demonstrates that it has considered the "realities" as well as the theoretical aspects of the situation.

1. Affirmative program explained; general organization and procedure: five-man national board, regional boards, etc.; complaint, attempt at conciliation, court review, cease and desist order, fine or imprisonment, etc. (An actual plan, such as the New York State plan, or some Congress-

⁴ This discussion of "questions" obviously does not pertain to rhetorical questions, which are an effective rhetorical device and should by all means be encouraged.

- ional bill which has been discussed, such as the Norton-Chavez Bill, may be taken as a model.)
2. Portion of status quo program (if any) retained; education; formal and otherwise (explain)

The affirmative is not constrained to reject the entire status quo as evil, for to do so would be intellectually dishonest. Accordingly, it may incorporate into its program whatever elements of the status quo it deems effective but insufficient by themselves in coping with the problem. There is no contradiction here so long as the affirmative shows that its proposed innovation constitutes the major factor in solving the problem and that the total plan changes in essence the status quo. Furthermore, should the negative recommend modifications of the status quo which the affirmative has not considered, an affirmative team may, without detriment to its case, adopt these modifications if it sees fit provided it indicates that such improvements, though helpful, are minor and quite insufficient by themselves in solving the problem and that the affirmative program is the only true solution. To illustrate, in this year's national college topic, "Resolved, That the United States Should Adopt a Policy of Free Trade," the negative may indicate that complicated customs regulations hamper the flow of trade and that such regulations would be simplified by the negative. The affirmative can readily agree with the negative on this point and adopt it as part of their plan, explaining, however, that trade restrictions in the form of tariffs, quotas, etc. are the major obstacle to trade and that only their program would eliminate this (evil) causal factor.

B. How the solution solves the problem (or "meets the need")

1. Attacks cause of evil: compulsion counteracts self-interest; integration makes for understanding, tolerance; ignorance also combated by education, persuasion, etc.
2. Eliminates effects (the evils themselves)
 - a. Indirectly by eliminating the cause (explained B, 1)
 - b. Directly by making discrimination illegal; penalties, like those imposed for violating any law, discourage wrong-doing
3. Additional advantages

These are additional effects, the direct opposite of the "additional evils" cited in the need issue.

1. Greater understanding and harmony among people
2. Higher standard of living for all
3. Answer to Soviet propaganda
4. Strengthening of U. S. position among nations of the world, particularly borderline nations like India and Pakistan.

Negative Approach to the Second Issue: Undesirability

The negative analysis of the second issue parallels that of the affirmative.

A. Request for clarification of the affirmative program

In many debates such a request is unnecessary. However, on a question like the Non-Communist Organization specific information about the provision for a military force is tremendously important because it ties up with the whole question of sovereignty. Consequently, an affirmative team may hedge on this point if given the chance.

- B. The affirmative program fails to solve the "problem," i.e., it fails to eliminate the minor imperfections of the status quo which the negative in the second part of its need issue conceded; for it does not eliminate the cause as previously determined by the negative.**

To avoid confusion regarding the nature of the problem being discussed and the possible charge of inconsistency, the negative should preface this argument by some such remark as "Even if there were the serious problems which the affirmative claims and which we have disproved, the affirmative plan would not eliminate the cause of this problem." In developing this argument, the negative must demonstrate, generally with little damage to itself but with much gain, that the affirmative plan treats only effects.

Since the causal factors involved in most debate questions are very complex and their determination crucial to the outcome of the debate, this step should ordinarily receive much stress. A good practice is to include this argument in the first negative presentation so that the second negative speaker can return to it in some detail.

Taking our test case, this step might include the following:

- B. The cause of discrimination, as previously pointed out, is ignorance, as manifested by**
1. a mistaken belief concerning the inherent superiority of some races

2. unenlightened self-interest

3. irrational customs, mores, and folkways

An FEP Law would treat only effects, not this basic cause; a broader educational program (in the school, church, and home), appeal to reason, persuasion, and counter-propaganda are the only effective way to combat ignorance and thus discrimination

In passing, the negative, like the affirmative, may approve of certain points in the affirmative plan and adopt these as part of the "modifications" of the status quo advocated by the negative provided that such points or modifications are consistent with the essence of the status quo, i.e., provided that the status quo is in one way basically changed. For example, a negative team arguing the Free Trade question may agree that certain petty tariffs, like those on almonds, pipes, and figs, are undesirable and should be repealed; it may even favor repealing the "Buy American" Act without being inconsistent, provided it explains that such changes can readily be made within the framework of the status quo and are quite a different matter from the blanket "free trade" program advocated by the affirmative.

C. Additional disadvantages (effects, really, which would result from the affirmative plan) "Not only does the affirmative plan not solve anything but it would make matters worse."

1. Endanger progress already made, particularly in South
2. Lead to more discrimination and bad feelings against minorities
3. Constitute a form of discrimination against certain employers

We are ready now for the final issue, which for the sake of convenience we shall discuss concurrently from both the affirmative and negative points of view.

Affirmative and Negative Approach to the Third Issue:

Practicability and Impracticability

The final issue, practicability or impracticability, is perhaps the most difficult to "prove" empirically since it really constitutes a prediction (resembling the second issue in this respect) and, like most predictions, is predominantly an inductive argument,

capable of yielding only a "probable" conclusion. As previously mentioned, the emphasis given this issue depends upon the question itself. In some debates this issue is relatively minor; in others, as with FEPC, it is most important. Then, too, certain phases of the issue may be more important than others and accordingly would be stressed more. A suggested breakdown of this issue is as follows:

- A. Ease (or difficulty) of getting the plan into operation; the nature of the obstacles in the way
- B. Ease (or difficulty) of operation: cost, personnel, procedure, standards, machinery, violations, enforceability

Ease (or Difficulty) of Getting Plan Into Operation

A solution may have much to recommend it as a solution but, to merit serious consideration, it must be one that can be put into effect. This condition in turn leads to the question, What obstacles, if any, stand in the way? Recognizing the fact that obstacles vary in magnitude, a debater must show that the obstacles confronting his plan are not "serious." Like "obstacles," "serious" is a relative term and thus difficult to set precise limits of meaning to. For our present purpose, however, two fairly specific categories may be established: "serious" and "not serious." Serious obstacles may be considered those which would prevent the plan from coming into being, which would render the plan impossible (or highly improbable) because the latter clearly violates some known physical law or deep-seated principle (moral, economic, political, etc.) of the society wherein the plan is to operate. All other obstacles may be considered "not serious." For example, the proposition "Resolved, That the United States Should Build Air Bases on the Moon" involves an impracticable

solution because the latter is counter to certain physical laws (at least up to the present). Another example might be "Resolved, That the President of the United States Should Be Given Absolute Powers in Peacetime." If both the affirmative and negative accept at the outset, implicitly or otherwise, the fact that this plan is to operate in a democratic society, the proposal could be called impracticable because it clearly contradicts the objective of such a society. If, on the other hand, a representative of Russia or Spain debated this question with an American, the charge of impracticability on the basis that the proposal violates an accepted principle of the land could not be levelled, but then both teams would have to agree on some other principle, some common end, before they could debate the question.⁵

This latter example, incidentally, brings to mind a number of debate propositions (Federal Aid to Education, FEPC, TVA, Tidelands Oil, Federal Medicine) where the charge of unconstitutionality is introduced as an element of impracticability. However, to substantiate this charge a debater must show not merely that the Constitution makes no specific provision for the proposed course of action but that the latter violates a basic tenet of the

democratic philosophy. If the negative can show only the former, the affirmative can reply simply by pointing out that a constitutional amendment would bring the proposal within the *letter* of the law (after proving, of course, that the proposal is within the spirit of the law). To be more specific, to argue that a national FEP Law is impracticable (or unconstitutional) because it violates States' rights would not be very convincing because the objective of such a law not only transcends such considerations but is clearly in keeping with the spirit of the Constitution. (This is not to say that one could not argue against FEPC for being impracticable on other grounds.) The argument of constitutionality is pertinent only when basic principles are being questioned, for then the argument has a logical basis in that it is inquiring into whether the proposal is consistent with the goals or rationale agreed upon at the outset by both sides.

Ease (or Difficulty) of Operation

This phase of the third issue may encompass several factors; for once a plan is put into operation, many things may go wrong with it. The more complex the plan, the more numerous the pitfalls. At this stage, then, the negative would endeavor to show that the operation or functioning of the plan would entail greater evils than those which the affirmative sought to eliminate, while the affirmative would do just the opposite, try to show that any difficulties entailed in the operation of the plan would be minor. Some of the points which might be considered at this time by both sides are as follows:

1. Cost. The question of cost does not always arise, but when it does, it can be a crucial point. Cost is sometimes considered in the first part of the

⁵ Debaters frequently attempt to discredit a proposal as impracticable by suggesting through means of a false analogy that the obstacles confronting the affirmative plan are physically insurmountable when in truth they are not. For example, I once heard an eloquent debater advance this argument against the Nationalization of the Basic Non-Agricultural Industries: Even if the plan had any merit, so the argument went, it is wholly impracticable because there is not the remotest chance that Congress would pass such a law. We might as well debate the proposition that "Thunder Should Be Outlawed"; even if it were a good idea, it's impossible and therefore wholly impracticable. Why waste time discussing it?

Needless to say, if this argument were valid, the framers of the proposition committed a grievous error to begin with.

third issue, for if it can be shown that the money needed for a given plan simply does not exist, then it follows that getting the plan into operation is impossible. However, money is usually available, but the problem is getting people to part with it and, if they are to be forced to part with it, through the medium of taxes, convincing them that their money will be well spent.

2. Machinery. The machinery of a plan, to use the term figuratively, would include not only the organization but the personnel, the various provisions of a given plan, and the actual steps taken to carry out these provisions. Objections might be raised (and countered) that the provisions are too broad or too narrow; too ambiguous or too specific; too easy to violate, too difficult to enforce; that too many persons are required for the execution of the plan; that such persons are unqualified or corruptible; that enforcement would be fraught with many unhappy consequences. Since these points (and their opposite number) are easier to understand than to prove, let us consider the latter problem for a moment. To repeat, practicability or impracticability is difficult to prove because it deals not so much with what has happened but with what will happen. Therefore, proof must consist mainly of explanation by cause-and-effect and by function, of expert testimony, and possibly of analogy. Since analogy is the least understood, a few words may help to dispel the misunderstanding associated with its use.

To begin with, figurative analogies are not a means of formal proof, such as the syllogism for example, and should be avoided as such; however, they may be used as a means of explanation and therefore as an adjunct to persuasion. The line between explanation and

persuasion is often non-existent. Indeed, explanation, or the process by which facts are related to other facts, is accomplished by the same techniques used in reasoning, and its purpose may well be advocacy as well as clarification. To explain the function of a given program, for example, may be tantamount to recommending its adoption. As for the uses of analogy, the subject is quite complex and only some general principles will be indicated here.

All figurative analogies must be considered with regard to their context. Some are patently false because the two basic components of the analogy fall into divergent classes. To explain, for example, that trying to reform a criminal is like getting a leopard to change its spots or to explain that outlawing the atomic bomb because of the terrible havoc it can wreak may be compared to outlawing the automobile for the same reason is to use a false analogy; for the components of the analogy in each instance represent divergent categories, as a cursory analysis reveals. However, to explain problem-solving by comparing it with a physician's diagnosis or to explain the effects of propaganda by comparing them with those of the inky fluid ejected by squid is permissible; for the components of the analogy in each instance are members of the same category or class, which the analogy endeavors to clarify by bringing it within the experience of the listener.

Literal or relational analogies, on the other hand, though rarely conclusive alone, may be used as a means of proof, that is, as a valid inductive argument; not the strongest type of inductive argument, perhaps, but usable provided the usual precautions are taken.⁶ If, for example, one were arguing for the

⁶ These precautions or tests for a sound analogy are discussed in most basic logic texts.

establishment of a city-manager form of government for Wilkes-Barre and pointed to the successful operation of such a plan in Scranton,⁷ the analogy would be fairly reasonable and quite persuasive because the two components of the comparison have basic similarities and only minor differences. However, to argue that a program of public health medicine would succeed or fail in the United States because of its success or failure in Russia would be fallacious and easily refuted because of many basic differences, political and economic, between the two countries. In the practicability issue of last year's debate on FEPC some negative debaters drew the familiar analogy between the old Prohibition Law and an FEP law. Though not as bad as some analogies used at this juncture of the debate, it is nevertheless fallacious, as close analysis will reveal.

Returning to our test case once more, the practicability issue and its counterpart, developed in accordance with the principles herein set forth, might look something like this:

(Affirmative) Practicability

- A. Getting plan into operation: such a law does not violate the Constitution; on the contrary, it provides a means of enforcing a Constitutional principle, that "all men are created free and equal" and have the right to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." If there is a question regarding States' rights, then a Constitutional amendment would be in order.
- B. Ease of operation:
 1. Costs: much less than the economy annually loses because of discrimination, a loss estimated at 15 to 30 billions annually
 2. Machinery:
 - a. Operation: conciliation first, compulsion a last resort; point to successful working of New York FEP Law

⁷ A hypothetical example.

- b. Enforcement: no difficulty in this respect; point to successful integration, without violence, in many Southern firms, notably International Harvester; point to numerous instances where the South has accommodated itself to Supreme Court rulings against various forms of discrimination (1200 negroes in Southern white universities, abolishment of "intelligence test" as a voting requirement in Alabama, etc., etc.)

(Negative) Impracticability

- A. Getting plan into operation:
 1. Filibuster in Senate would make passage of law impossible
 2. Unconstitutional, for it violates right of association and right of contract
 3. Violates States' rights
- B. Difficulty of operation:
 1. Machinery:
 - a. Too difficult to get impartial members, especially for Southern boards
 - b. Criteria of discrimination too elusive and thus many violations
 2. Enforcement:
 - a. South will not obey law, just as it has ignored certain Supreme Court rulings against segregation; no means to enforce it there; the South will disobey the law just as the North disobeyed the Prohibition Law because it had no moral compulsion to obey it
 - b. Enforcement would lead to many evils
 - i. Possibly endanger the progress already made voluntarily by the South
 - ii. Will lead, according to public announcements of the Governors and referendums by the people, to the closing down of the public school system in South Carolina, Alabama, and Georgia
 - iii. Will lead to violence and bloodshed in the South, as during Reconstruction days and as in certain States during World War II in the wake of President Roosevelt's wartime FEPC. Cite examples in Florida, Alabama, and Louisiana

The reader may have noted that some of the considerations included in a

discussion of the third issue overlap some of those of the second issue; that is to say, if a proposed plan saves the people money or is otherwise in accord with the objectives of the system under scrutiny, or if the proposed plan operates more efficiently than the one in effect, such a plan would be not only practicable or workable but also desirable. Sometimes, particularly with economic questions, the line between desirability and practicability is so thin as to be indistinguishable. For this reason in certain cases practicability is sometimes discussed before desirability or in conjunction with it.

In the light of the discussion of the three basic issues, let us now consider the implication of "should" in the debate proposition. When someone argues that something should or should not be done, he is in effect arguing for or against the efficacy of a given cause-and-effect relationship; he is contending that a given means is or is not the best means to a given end. And he tries to establish this point by applying the laws of inference, in sum, by reason. From the affirmative standpoint it is reasonable or logical to argue that if a given plan solves a crucial problem, *can* be instituted and *would* work, it *should* be tried; in other words, from every standpoint of logic, such a course of action is desirable. For a negative team to argue that such a plan *will* not be tried because the people are against it is usually irrelevant, which is to say that public opinion polls are generally worthless as evidence. Such polls are irrelevant, or have no bearing on the logical desirability of the plan, for most people are not always aware of what best serves their own interest, or, if aware, do not always act in accord with these interests. This surprising conclusion has been empirically established by

leading social psychologists. (Cf. *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology* by David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield.) In a word, the man in the street is not usually a reliable authority on the solution of a complex problem. Working in reverse, a negative team may argue that a given plan should not be tried because it is logically undesirable: it is not needed, it would be evil, and it could not work. The difference between "should" and "will" is dramatically pointed up by the analogy with the pedestrian who *should* get out of the way of an automobile (it is logically desirable certainly), but *will* he always?

In conclusion, we see that practically everything in debate hinges upon understanding the issues—organization, reasoning, evidence, adaptation, rebuttal, over-all strategy—just about everything but speaking, and even that is affected; for knowledge and grasp of material gives one confidence, a most important ingredient in persuasive speaking.

(For the convenience of the reader, the following outline is provided.)

Preliminary:

1. Defining the "status quo" and other key terms of the question
2. Determining a common end (aimed at by the status quo or affirmative plan)

Affirmative:

I. NEED

- A. There is a need for changing the status quo, for
 1. empirical evidence of evil (evidence that above end is not being achieved)
 2. additional effects of evil
- B. There is a need for changing the status quo, because
 1. immediate causal factors of evils
 2. underlying cause of cause (inherent weakness)
 3. present machinery defective (explain with relation to 1 & 2)

II. DESIRABILITY

- A. Affirmative program explained: general organization and machinery
- B. Affirmative program solves problem ("meets the need")
 - 1. attacks (or eliminates) cause of evil
 - 2. attacks (or eliminates) effects (the evils)
 - a. indirectly by attacking cause
 - b. directly
- C. Additional advantages of program (effects opposite of I, A, 2)

III. PRACTICABILITY

- A. Getting program into operation: obstacles minor; plan not contrary to any physical law or established principle (does not violate the common end agreed upon, implicitly or otherwise, at outset)
- B. Ease of operation
 - 1. cost (minor or actually saves money)
 - 2. machinery (simple and workable; successful elsewhere perhaps)
 - a. nature of machinery (regulations, personnel)
 - b. operation (procedures)
 - c. enforcement

Negative:

I. NO NEED

- A. There is no need for changing the status quo, for
 - 1. empirical evidence of gains and achievements (evidence that the above end is being achieved)
 - 2. additional effects of gains
- B. There is no need for changing the status quo, because
 - 1. cause of gains and achievements (machinery of status quo, which is inherently sound)

Process of Inquiry

1. Preliminary situation; problem
2. Formulation of problem: what, how, when, where, who, why?
3. Observation of clues (toward solution)
4. Formulation of hypothesis
5. Deduction of further facts from hypothesis
6. Deduction tested
7. Hypothesis accepted or rejected

As I once before stated, "debate of social, political, and economic questions is the counterpart of the scientific meth-

- C. Only minor imperfections exist

1. cite imperfections
2. cite cause of imperfections (accidental, not inherent)

- D. Modifications of present machinery would eliminate imperfections

1. would treat the true cause of the imperfections
2. might also treat effects, i.e., imperfections, directly

II. UNDESIRABILITY

- A. Request, if necessary, for clarification of affirmative program
- B. Affirmative plan fails to solve problem (does not meet the "need"), for
 1. it does not attack the cause
- C. Additional disadvantages (harmful effects resulting from program, opposite of I, A, 2)

III. IMPRACTICABILITY

- A. Getting affirmative program into operation: obstacles major; plan violates a physical law or deep-seated principle (not in accord with the common end)
- B. Difficulty of operation
 1. cost (prohibitive)
 2. machinery (cumbersome and unworkable; failure elsewhere perhaps)
 - a. nature of machinery (regulations, personnel)
 - b. operation (procedures)
 - c. enforcement

It is interesting to note how closely the development of the debate case parallels that of the scientific process. Actually, the former is an exfoliation of the latter.

Debate Case

1. Economic, political, or social climate—something wrong
2. Evils: what are they? how manifested? when and by whom? why (cause of evils)?
3. Analogous problems and causes suggest solution
4. Solution explained
5. Effects growing out of solution
6. Practicability of solution
7. Solution accepted or rejected

od of inquiry into the problems of the physical world."⁸

⁸ *Bulletin of the Debating Association of Pennsylvania Colleges*, Vol. XVII, No. 21 (December, 1951), p. 33.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CHORAL SPEAKING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Geraldine Garrison

CHORAL speaking is the speaking together of a poem or a piece of prose by children who impart the meaning of the selection clearly and spontaneously. Teachers in the elementary school use choral speaking as a motivating device to interest children in poetry. Poetry is meant to be read aloud. Children are likely to enjoy poetry if they have experienced the excitement of hearing it read well and of participating in effective choral speaking of it. Members of the group stimulate each other; the rhythm, contrasts in groups of voices and in individual voices, the sound of the full quality of voices skillfully blended impress children. Furthermore, the children and teacher interpret the poem in a meaningful way, because they have planned the reading together. Children develop an appreciation of poetry through choral speaking.

Many teachers use a form of choral speaking even in kindergarten, for the children repeat part of stories or poems with the teacher; for example, quite spontaneously they speak together their favorite nursery rhyme. They speak together for the sheer enjoyment of the sounds, rhyme, and rhythm of the poetry. When children are ready, the teacher helps them to speak together more effectively.

CHORAL SPEAKING

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CULTURAL SHOCK AND COMMUNICATION IN INTERNATIONAL STUDENT EXCHANGE

Ivan Putman, Jr.

PRESIDENT EISENHOWER in his address to the 1953 meeting of the American Council on Education strongly emphasized his belief that understanding among peoples of the world must be achieved if we are to attain our ultimate goal—peace in our time—and that international exchange of students and others is “one of the great ways” of achieving understanding.

The phenomenal growth of international exchanges since World War II gives concrete testimony that people everywhere, regardless of race, creed, or language, share the President's faith in the achievement of understanding through exchange of persons. In the United States alone last year there were nearly 34,000 students from 128 nations of the world, more than three times the number of foreign students in 1945-1946. This is a large number, but it is insignificant compared to the numbers of people from all walks of life who cross international boundaries for business or pleasure each year.

There is no doubt that this tremendous flow of people across borders is good business for the transportation companies and hotel keepers, but is it doing anything for international understanding? Unfortunately the answer must be, “Not necessarily.” Many people assume that the mere physical presence of so many foreign students in the

United States assures that they will understand us, like us, and ever after lead their countries to support us in the struggle for world power. It just does not work that way. There is nothing automatic about it.

The key question is not where people have been, but rather what has happened to them while they were there. What have they learned? Have their attitudes changed? Have they developed an understanding of the problems, an appreciation of the culture, and respect for the people of the country they have visited? Or have they seen only what they expected to see and come home with deeper prejudices than ever? In many cases it is extremely difficult to learn the answers, and much attention is now being given to the development of research techniques to try to determine whether foreign experience in a given case helped or hurt the cause of international understanding.

Obviously for us, the central figure in the whole exchange movement is the exchange student himself. He may be the son of a high government official or a prominent business or professional man, or he may come from the less pretentious home of an artisan or farmer. Whatever his background, he has probably been an excellent student, at or near the head of his class. He has grown to expect that he will be successful academically, and he is keenly aware that his family and friends expect success of him, too.

He has survived a whole series of screening processes before he is per-

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mitted to come to us. He has gone through the often arduous task of gaining admission to an American university. His own government has examined him. The U. S. Consul in his country has screened him. In many cases a selection committee of the Institute of International Education or a Fulbright Commission has also passed him. He has seen others in the same lines of ambitious applicants fail, but he has passed all the tests with flying colors. He knows he is one of the top young people that his country can send to America, and he is proud of himself and his homeland.

He has had many reasons for going through all this to study in America.

1. He has long dreamed of seeing the wonders of that fabulous land himself and enjoying the lavish standard of living he has seen in Hollywood movies. (Possibly the high percentage of gangsters, cowboys, and Indians in the population may prove annoying, but no more so than war and political unrest at home.)
2. He undoubtedly has high hopes of acquiring some of that famed American "know-how" in order that he may help duplicate at home the technological advancement of the United States.
3. The education he seeks may not be available at all in his country, but whether it is or not, the prestige of an American degree is probably high.
4. Generous financial aids that are available for study in America not only make the trip possible in view of the dollar shortage in his country, but may also make possible a university education that he could never afford at home.
5. He is eager to know more about these strange Americans—he wants to know how they think, what their

philosophy is, how they work and play.

6. And he is eager to tell Americans about his country and its culture, for after all, its history goes back possibly thousands of years and has made important contributions to American culture.

In short he wants to be an ambassador of good will between his country and the U. S.

And we on this side have what seems to us to be equally good reasons for wanting him to come.

1. We realize only too well that we need friends and allies abroad who understand and trust us, and who we hope will support us in the struggle against totalitarian forces. Our student's country is often an important strategic bastion against those forces.
2. We are genuinely eager to help those less fortunate than ourselves to improve their own lot, and educating their actual or potential leaders is one of the soundest ways of doing it.
3. We are willing to admit that we know very little about the rest of the world, and if our country is going to be successful as the acknowledged, if unwilling, leader of the free world, having this student here gives us a good chance to learn something about his people and how to get along with them.
4. We may as well admit, too, that we are flattered that our educational institutions can really be considered to have come of age when they can attract outstanding students from abroad, a fact which we do not overlook in our promotional materials.

Now having set forth some of his reasons for coming and our reasons for

wanting him, let us look at what happens to our international student and his dreams when he comes to America. His idealized picture of America's reception for him, the pride of his country, may have been badly shaken, if not completely shattered before he left home, by the red tape required under U. S. law and by the sometimes regrettable indifference of U. S. Consular officials. Then, particularly if he flies to the States, he arrives without having had time to adjust himself mentally or emotionally for the change from the ancient culture of his country to the rush and noise of America. He is tired and frightened as he gets off the plane. If he has any illusions left about Americans, they may be dispelled by his treatment at the hands of a hurried and harried Customs or Immigration officer who may be more conscious of the pressure of long lines of impatient travelers than of the feelings of a confused student. Our student probably arrives in a big port city where he knows no one, although he gratefully receives help from the Committee on Friendly Relations, the Institute of International Education, or similar agencies. The food is strange and expensive, and he has a vague feeling that it may not agree with him. People are in such a hurry—they are gone before he musters courage to ask directions. Because his dress is a little different or his skin a little darker than most, people stare at him with curious or hostile eyes—or look through him without seeing him at all. And worst of all, he cannot understand what they say and begins to wonder if being at the top of his English class in school for three years is enough. The realities are not like his dreams.

When he arrives at his university, the people are friendly and he feels better, but everything is so confused!

People talk to him of transcripts, credits, evaluations, objective tests, semesters, requirements, deficiencies, fraternities. He is put through orientation and registration, which leave him in a dim whirl of confusion. He is given tests the like of which he has never seen—he can hardly understand where to put the answer, much less which one to mark—and he knows that he failed them miserably. He may have thought that the scholarship awarded to him would enable him to live like a king, but all too often he finds that it is not even enough to meet his minimum expenses. He can get no help from home, so he must work. He must get permission from Immigration and find a job. He may expect to earn all he needs by tutoring Americans in his language, but he can find no one who wants to learn it. He must work as a dishwasher or a janitor, but if he stoops to servants' labor how can he, a scholar, face his professors and fellow students, to say nothing of his family and friends at home?

Furthermore, he finds that faculty and students are hopelessly ignorant about his country, and they seem quite indifferent even to correcting their false notions, to say nothing of learning new things. They are always asking him how he likes America, but when he begins to talk about home they seem to sense their inadequacy and drift away. His fellow students seem much more concerned with football, "coke dates," and the like than with serious study.

In his classes he is similarly frustrated. He just cannot understand the lectures. No matter how hard he works he is likely to be far closer to the bottom of his class than to his accustomed place at the top. He is bitter because in class and in everything else Americans seem to work less and get more than

he or people in his country. He is heart-sick, lonely, disappointed.

This is indeed a gloomy picture of an international student, but it is a picture that can be painted in greater or lesser degree, with shifting emphases and elements, for a majority of the students from abroad who come to America. Although the term "cultural shock" may have other meanings to the sociologist, it is sometimes applied to this complex of seemingly insurmountable obstacles which the new international student feels are pressing so close around him that he can hardly breathe for the sheer weight of them. To some it is a serious physical thing as real as shock after an accident. To many the shock seems slight, but I suspect that the hurt of it is largely concealed.

Dr. Karl Deutsch, speaking before the National Association of Foreign Student Advisers two years ago, classified the negative experiences of a foreign student, such as I have described, into three categories:

1. The experience of strangeness which leaves him unable to predict behavior of those around him or to reconcile his values with theirs. These are experiences of rejection and insecurity.
2. The experience of denial of respect, from which he feels we do not value what he is, but expect him to change to fit our stereotype.
3. The experience of denial of genuine attention, of genuine interest and friendship.

Dr. Deutsch believes that such experiences tend to kill the feelings of goodwill toward us, and to put in its place a strong anti-American nationalistic feeling, exactly the opposite of the result we seek.

The truly amazing thing in all this is the high percentage of international stu-

dents who seem to recover completely from the effects of cultural shock. Many go on to graduate with credit to themselves and their homelands. They succeed in fulfilling their original purposes in coming, and ours in receiving them, to a greater degree than any of us really expected. The question is in these cases, what cured them? Obviously some pleasant and supporting experiences helped to change their attitudes. And in examining the histories of some of these cases, it is evident that a major factor has been the development of the power to communicate in English.

If we were to go back over the list of unpleasant, if not downright calamitous events in the life of our sample foreign student, we would see that in many of the situations the effect would have been more pleasant, and certainly less traumatic, if the student's language facility had been well enough developed to cope with it. I do not presume to say that the ability to communicate freely will automatically solve all of the problems of exchange students, but I am sure that the magnitude of the problems would be considerably reduced, and the process of solving them greatly facilitated, if ready communication were possible.

In analyzing the communication problem of international students it is evident that oral communication is the area of their greatest weakness. Given time most of them can usually understand the printed page and write down some vague semblance of their thoughts. But when it comes to speaking and understanding the spoken language, many of them, often potentially some of the best, are hopelessly lost. Americans speak too fast, and we do not sound like their teachers at home, many of whom would probably be no more understandable to us than their students

are. I have been told by one student, "We studied Shakespeare in my English class at home, I understand Shakespeare. You do not speak like Shakespeare." Another said, "Perhaps English and American are really different languages. I speak English and you speak American." I had to agree with both comments.

The oral communication aspect is one that has been long neglected in language teaching. Greater attention needs to be given to it in at least three important ways:

1. In the planning of programs of English instruction for foreign students in our colleges and universities and in the development of new and more effective techniques for teaching languages.
2. In the training of teachers of English as a second language. Too few teachers in this field have the specialized training they need to do the most effective work. Trained teachers are needed not only at home, but also abroad. Many of the problems we face with foreign students would not occur, and most of the remainder would be minimized, if only the students could master the language before they leave home.
3. In the training of teachers of other foreign languages. We are learning

more and more that we must compliment our friends abroad by meeting them half-way in learning their language as they learn ours. Most of us who have ever had a foreign language in school took it because we had to, and for that reason, and because it was dull, we learned as little as possible. The use of the oral approach and other modern methods, along with better motivation to learn, should produce far better results.

In summary, the oral approach to the learning and teaching of language is "a must" if we are ever to establish effective communication among peoples. Communication is a necessary prerequisite to understanding. Without understanding we can never reach our ultimate goal, a stable and peaceful world.

The key role of communication and of teachers of communication in this drama of world affairs is not a new or profound idea, but it is an idea that bears frequent and emphatic repetition. Even the language teachers themselves too often become so involved in daily struggles with phonemes, accent, intonation, verb forms, and the like that they forget the importance of their work in the over-all strategy of the great international task force moving slowly but resolutely toward a common goal—peace in the Atomic Age!

OBJECTIVES AND SCOPE OF THE FUNDAMENTALS COURSE IN SPEECH IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

Hugh F. Seabury

OUR free public high school is supported by our democratic society especially for its preservation and improvement. Therefore, the ultimate objective of our high school and all parts of its program is to preserve and improve our democratic society.

This ultimate objective is accomplished, in so far as it is accomplished in our high school, by making a change, a difference, an improvement in boys and girls, in their attitudes and traits, their intellects, their study, work, and play, their emotional balance and control, their personalities. This improvement seems to be revealed in their present behavior as boys and girls and their later behavior as adult members of our democratic society. The importance and worthwhileness of our high school, and any part of its program, become evident as boys and girls are helped by it to become responsible and effective adult citizens in our democratic society.

High school administrators are, therefore, concerned with the all-round and continuous growth of boys and girls as effective and responsible persons in the high school and community. Likewise, they are concerned with *immediate educational objectives and educational experiences* which can best effect desired educational outcomes in these boys and girls. The determination of these

objectives, the planning of these experiences, and the guidance of students toward desired outcomes are a challenge and responsibility of teachers who are no less concerned with the development of boys and girls—*speech-wise* and *all otherwise*.

OBJECTIVES OF THE FUNDAMENTALS COURSE

Teachers of speech are confronted with the challenge and responsibility for demonstrating that the fundamentals course in speech belongs in the high school.

If it does not make a unique and significant contribution to the ultimate objective of the high school, it surely does not belong.

If its objective is only to develop *public* or *platform* speakers, it probably does not belong.

If it is permitted to develop or encourage exhibitionists, egotists, or trophy seeking contest winners *per se*, it does not belong.

If it results in the development of voluble speakers who talk "without substance" or give evidence of their lack of understanding or responsibility for what they say, it can be harmful.

If it treats, primarily, the *manner* and *form* of speaking, it puts a premium on "form over matter."

If it is unrelated to "what goes on in the school and community," it does not belong in the high school.

If it deals with insignificant subject

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matter and activities which are not related to the speech interests, needs, abilities, and capabilities of high school students, it will offer too little.

If it is recognized by the students as an easy, elective course, it will probably be elected only by students who seek an "easy credit."

If it is recognized by students as a good, elective course, it will probably be elected by only a few students.

If it is taught by a teacher whose interest, training, or experience in it is lacking, it will probably be a relatively easy and worthless course.

If it is taught by a teacher whose interest, training, and experience in it are excellent and whose philosophy is sound, pressure on the teacher and students to win contests or to win favorable publicity may destroy the values of the course.

If it is taught by a well-qualified teacher of speech who is expected to relate and develop understanding and skill in unrelated content or skills, it will probably be disappointing.

If it is taught by a teacher who fails to accept listening and observing as essential corollaries of speech and who is not concerned with his students' reading and writing, the basic tools of learning will have been neglected.

If it is assumed that merely providing speech activities or speech practice for students will necessarily result in speech improvement, the results will likely be disappointing.

However, none of these shortcomings is either unique to a fundamentals course in speech or necessarily results from it. A course can be constructed that will provide for:

- (1) The *appraisal* of each student's interests, needs, abilities, and capacities in speech and its corollary communication skills and content.

- (2) The *orientation* by each student in principles, fundamentals, and practices of speaking, reading aloud, pantomiming, writing, listening, and observing.
- (3) The *development* of each student's abilities as a speaker and as a responsible and effective person.

The qualified speech teacher can, in a fundamentals course in speech, appraise his students individually and collectively. He will want to study them in order to determine their individual differences and group tendencies. Otherwise, he cannot begin with them *where they are* and *take each of them* expeditiously toward the attainment of objectives which they recognize and accept as leading to desired and achievable outcomes.

This appraisal, like the orientation and development of students in the course, will be aimed at such objectives as the following:

- (1) The development of attitudes and traits essential in a democracy such as
 - a. Willingness to accept responsibility.
 - b. Dependability in discharging responsibility.
 - c. Favorable consideration for the rights, opinion, and property of others.
 - d. Acceptance and use of constructive criticisms and suggestions.
 - e. Desirable influence on associates.
 - f. Poise and self-control.
- (2) The development of the intellect and background of each student by providing experiences in the course which will begin with his level of intelligence, maturity, scholastic attainment, desirable interests and ambitions, and attitudes and traits.
- (3) The development of each student's personableness, alertness, adaptability, industry, resourcefulness, cooperativeness, vigor and force, sincerity, tact, and interest in self-improvement.
- (4) The development of each student's work, study, and play activities which will enable him to use his time wisely and efficiently, be prompt with his assignments, demonstrate ingenuity and initiative, show neatness and pride in his achievement, and satisfaction with work well done.

- (5) The development of each student's ability in fundamentals of speech such as
 - a. Adjustment in a variety of increasing complex speech situations.
 - b. Worthiness and clarity of objectives.
 - c. Quality and integrity of ideas and materials.
 - d. Clarity of organization of ideas in speech and writing.
 - e. Reading, selection, and use of materials in speech and writing.
 - f. Control and use of bodily action.
 - g. Comprehension and use of language.
 - h. Pronunciation, enunciation, and articulation.
 - i. Courteous, analytical, and discriminating observing and listening.
- (6) The development of each student's appreciation for freedom of speech and the responsibility of himself and others in exercising it.
- (7) The development of each student's satisfaction from his participation and development in the course and from his achievement of desired outcomes of the course.

As qualified speech teachers demonstrate that a fundamentals course in speech, as taught by them, makes a significant and unique contribution to the development of *boys and girls* as well as to the development of *their speech*, the course will probably be accepted as a vital part of the curriculum in an ever increasing number of high schools.

THE SCOPE OF THE FUNDAMENTALS COURSE

Although the *appraisal* and *orientation* in theory and subject matter may, in turn, be emphasized, student-*development* will result, primarily, from teacher-guided student participation in speech activities and performances. Each teacher and his students will determine the speech activities and speech performances of which the major portion of the course will consist, and the criteria by which these activities and performances will be analyzed.

Each teacher may determine the approach which will be used in the course:

(1) a fundamentals approach, (2) a subject matter approach, (3) a student activity and performance approach, or (4) a combination of these approaches.

The following are some suggested activities and performances which are suggested as unit headings for a fundamentals course:

(1) Oral Interpretation of Prose

Members of the group, with guidance by the teacher, will determine standards by which prose passages will be selected and their reading aloud will be analyzed by the teacher and students. Stories and short passages may be chosen from the works of authors selected by the students and the teacher.

(2) Explanatory Speeches with Visual Aids

Criteria for the selection of topics and other criteria by which the speeches will be analyzed will be determined by the class and the teacher. Topics may be drawn from around the school, the home, and the town or community. Hobbies, books, magazines, radio and television, and civic affairs may afford topics. Blackboard work, charts, pictures, apparatus, and actual objects may be used as visual aids. Students and the teacher will analyze the speeches in accordance with the criteria accepted by them.

(3) Phonetics, Diacritical Marks, Spelling, Pronunciation, and Articulation

With skillful motivation, well-planned assignments, and excellence of instruction, high-school students will learn phonetic symbols and the sounds represented by phonetic symbols. They will read aloud passages written in phonetic symbols and will write in phonetic symbols short, dictated passages. Likewise, they will learn the diacritical marks. They will mark diacritically and accent word-lists or commonly mispronounced words, and pronounce the words correctly in class. In addition, they will be interested in the articulation of sounds in isolation, in words, in sentences, in "tongue-twisters for lazy lips and lazy tongues," and in especially selected passages of prose and poetry.

(4) Informative and Explanatory Speeches on Speech Content

The topics will be selected by the students from a list of topics prepared by the

teacher from the textbook and reference books for the course. These speeches will provide opportunity for another speaking experience and for discussion of speech theory and subject matter.

(5) Oral Interpretation of Poetry

Standards for selection of poetry will be discussed and accepted by students and the teacher. The teachers will have lists of poems and "cuttings" of poetry which will be appropriate for the students. Although the poetry should be interesting to the students, it will challenge their interpretative and communicative abilities and raise their level of appreciation and enjoyment. Every effort will be made to help students to make selections on the basis of their individual differences. Enjoyment, successful interpretation, and effective projection will be paramount. The teacher may want to do some reading aloud. Recordings of well-read poetry may be played and discussed. The analysis of reading by students will encourage students as well as help them to improve their oral interpretation.

(6) Discussion

Students will discuss problems of fact, value, and policy. Panel, symposium, forum, and small group discussions may be held on school, community, state, and national problems. Responsibilities and procedures of leaders and discussants will be studied.

(7) Parliamentary Procedure

Students will prepare motions, bills, and resolutions, debate them in parliamentary meetings, and become oriented in parliamentary procedure.

(8) Radio Plays

Students will produce short plays over the public address system or over the local radio station provided the play is well done and provided the necessary arrangements can be made with the station. Each student will be cast in at least one role in at least one play. The plays will be rehearsed, recorded, analyzed, and re-

corded, again and again until a reasonably high standard of production is attained.

(9) Individual and Group Pantomimes

The students will be interested in pantomimes for the expression of the emotions of fear, anger, and joy, for the pantomimic impersonation of WELL KNOWN and local characters for telling stories. The teacher will be prepared with suggestions for pantomimes by girls, by boys, and by groups. The objectives, values, procedures, and standards of analysis of pantomiming will need to be understood and accepted by the students and the teacher.

(10) One-Act Play Unit

Students will produce enough one-act plays for each student to get a part in a play and experience on a production crew. The plays may be cuttings from long plays. They may be staged in the classroom. In any event, they are recommended as a significant part of the course for developing self-confidence, self-control, poise, cooperation, responsibility, and effectiveness of students in speech situations.

(11) Extemporaneous Speeches on Topics from *Time*, *Newsweek*, and *American Observer*

Students will determine and clarify objectives, select and limit subjects, make outlines, collect and analyze data, and make speeches for evaluation and criticism in terms of fundamentals and skills in speechmaking.

(12) Argumentative Speeches

Students will make speeches to convince on current social, economic, and political questions. Organization, documentation, sources, and presentation will be analyzed after each speech.

These and other significant speech activities and performances should help all students, with the guidance of a well-qualified speech teacher in a fundamentals course, to become proficient communicators and to become responsible and effective persons in the school and community.

WHITHER THE DEPARTMENT OF SPEECH?

Waldo W. Braden

LIKE many other phases of life today, education at all levels is undergoing a thorough analysis and re-evaluation both by educators and by citizens. Under the pressure of increasing costs and shrinking incomes administrators are scrutinizing more carefully the expenditures of their institutions. On almost every campus curriculum committees are studying departmental functions, course offerings, and programs of interdepartmental cooperation. Departments of speech are once more being evaluated. Comparatively speaking departments of speech are often more expensive on a student basis than other departments. Speech offerings must be taught in small sections; the more specialized courses demand costly equipment; extracurricular activities, yielding little income, require extra budgets. The growing recognition of the importance of speech in everyday living and the rise of various types of popular instruction in speech increase the interest in what present departments are doing. Therefore it seems pertinent to consider briefly the relationship of the department of speech to certain educational philosophies.

Many proposals have been advanced concerning the teaching of speech courses. Let us review three of the more divergent philosophies.

The first concerns speech under the general education scheme. At the outset we face the difficulty of explaining this trend, about which even its advocates are not in complete agreement as

to goals and methods. The much talked-of Harvard Report suggests that general education encompass a series of comprehensive general studies, planned to give the student a common understanding of the great men and the ideas of history. Its goal is to combat specialism, departmentalism, and vocationalism. What is the role of speech in this scheme? The report indicates that speech courses, like those in written composition, are not appropriate for the college curriculum because they teach skills. One member of the Harvard committee interpreted the report by saying, "The belief that a person's powers of thought and expression will be fostered by the study of the main fields of knowledge is the central belief of this report."¹ In other words, training in speech is to be acquired incidentally as the student reads the great books, discusses profound thoughts, and observes the professor who presides over his classes. Under this scheme every teacher must become a teacher of speech or, if you wish, every speech teacher must become conversant with all knowledge. To put it bluntly (in its extreme form) this philosophy "integrates" the department of speech out of existence.

A second philosophy suggests placing speech courses under the supervision of another department. Historically the proponents of this line of thinking have said that the speech field lacks unity,

¹ Statement of Dr. John H. Finley, Jr., Vice-Chairman of the committee. Quoted in the following: W. A. Dahlberg, "Speech and the Harvard Report," *Western Speech* XIV (March, 1950), pp. 3-9.

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that speech courses do not contain sufficient original or basic content, and that a speech department involves a union of unrelated fields. As a solution these persons have proposed redistribution of speech courses among several departments. They would give public speaking, argumentation, and interpretation to the English department; they would divide play production among the departments of English, home economics, and art; speech correction and speech science would go to psychology; radio and television would be split between journalism and physics. Some persons have suggested that speech pathology most logically belongs in the school of medicine.

Many persons, who have become dissatisfied with traditional approaches to speech and with speech departments, propose a redefinition of departmental function and a regrouping of the subject matter. They suggest that speech should be taught in combination with present courses of English composition or in communication courses which include reading, writing, and listening. Others think speech should be fused with certain aspects of psychology, sociology, and semantics in order to develop more adequately the speech personality and to emphasize the role of speech in human relations. In some institutions departments of communications operate alongside the departments of speech. In other institutions speech training is almost entirely taught in so-called integrated courses. These proposals are advanced as means to achieve greater effectiveness, to eliminate duplication, to find more congenial colleagues, and to economize on the budget.

A third general philosophy may be labelled as hyper-departmentalism. Manifestations of this point of view are

found in varying degrees and in many forms. Some persons argue, honestly and openly, that the department of speech is the most important department in the entire college and that the entire curriculum should be built around this most important of all subjects. They urge large numbers of students to enroll in as many speech courses as possible, to major in speech, to participate in as many extra-curricular speech activities as possible, and to subordinate all other college activities—curricular as well as extra-curricular—to speech. Growing out of this philosophy is the over-emphasis upon vocational training at the undergraduate level. Departments assume that their primary function is the training of actors, stage technicians, radio announcers, speech clinicians, and speech teachers. In some instances it results in multiplication of course offerings with the course content becoming thinner and thinner. In its extreme form, hyper-departmentalism results in a splintering into more specialized departments of public speaking, departments of drama, departments of radio, departments of television, and departments of speech pathology.

How shall we evaluate these diverse philosophies? Do any of these extremes represent what we seek in a department whose function is to train undergraduates? Let us consider each briefly.

The methods of general education, that is, speech training by incidental association, have proved inadequate many times. Experience and experimentation show that the reading of the great books, the understanding of the profound truths and great moral principles, and even association with philosophers produces neither fluency or adequate speech. Nor does it result in "the good man speaking well." Proficiency in speech, that is, adequate adjustment to

the speaking situation, the ability to hold attention and interest, the use of oral motivation, the effective selection and presentation of argument and evidence, clear and concise pronunciation, the oral projection of ideas—all of these and many other aspects of oral communication in its many forms, are acquired by actual practice before an audience and, most important, under the supervision of a competent critic. When emphasis is placed upon content in another field, whether it is general or specific, the teaching of speech, or any other subject, suffers from lack of attention. One suspects further that teachers saturated in the philosophy of the Harvard Report are most likely to look upon the teaching of speech as a subordinate goal and one worthy of little attention.

For those who question the advisability of a speech department, who would redefine its functions, or who would redistribute its subject matter, we need to sound a note of warning and to point out experiences of the past. When speech has been a part of another department, it has often been treated like an unwanted stepchild; the teacher of speech has been assigned to an inferior status; little attention has been shown to the problems of instruction; promotions have been denied; and research has been sidetracked. Many years ago Professor James M. O'Neill described these difficulties with reference to departments of English as follows:

Now what has actually happened? Two different influences have been at work. First, within the departments of English, as they have grown up, practically all authority has been in the hands of men trained in language and literature—men who by temperament, training, professional interest, and pressure of work, have been unfitted and unable, in a word, incompetent, to meet requirements in speaking. Second, in the colleges in general there has been a demand for work in speaking.

. . . The English departments have either neglected this opportunity or have made bad use of it. They did not do their work. They did hold on to the positions, the authority, the salaries that were needed to have this work. Knowing nothing of the work they have assumed that there was nothing in it worth knowing and either disregarded it or handed it over to incompetent, ill-prepared, and underpaid men, of the kind that could be found to do much work without hope of promotion, or reputable academic position.²

Although the statement above was uttered in 1914, the ideas expressed are as true today as they were then. Some forty years later we can reaffirm O'Neill's conclusion. Teachers of speech do not lack tradition, subject matter, scholarship, pedagogical know-how or experience. Certainly the departments of speech have proved that they have as much right to exist, have as important a function, and deserve as much recognition as any other department of the liberal arts college.

On the other hand, we need to guard against hyper-departmentalism, for it can be as fatal to the purposes and goals of speech education as either of the other two philosophies. Professor Hubert Heffner of Stanford University pointedly expressed this warning in the following statement:

Instead of a goal of real and liberal education of the mind, we have substituted specialism and special aids. . . . Our courses and our programs are designed to train under-graduate students . . . in highly specialized skills, to make them at best highly skilled "lever pullers" in a technically divided society. Such training on its lower level is nothing more than training in tricks of the trade, and on its higher level it produces consummately skilled barbarians. . . . When we let that kind of training usurp our undergraduate programs, we invite exactly the kind of chaos and sterility that marks much of our work today and we of necessity exclude our work from any liberal educational program. By thus losing our goal, deserting our tradition,

² James M. O'Neill, "Public Speaking and English," *The Public Speaking Review*, III (January, 1914), pp. 132-140.

we have brought about some strange aberrations in speech training.³

Let us consider what we can learn from these three divergent points of view. The emphasis of general education upon "the full rounded and continuing development of a person" is as much a rhetorical tradition as it is one of general education. Disagreement with the Harvard Report and similar thinking does not automatically mean that we must pursue narrow specialism and hyper-departmentalism. Somewhere between these two extremes we have a place. Present interest and experimentation in co-ordinating speech teaching with that of other fields, particularly reading, writing, and listening, represents a possibility of increasing effectiveness. And certainly stress upon the importance of speech in human relations makes our teaching more dynamic and functional. But in attempts to co-operate, co-ordinate, and integrate we must make sure that as a field we are not swallowed up and lost in the *mêlée* of present educational change. On the other hand, the opposite extreme of hyper-departmentalism is equally disastrous to our objectives. In our fervor and enthusiasm for our field, we must not be blind to our relationships to the curriculum as a whole. The dividing and sub-dividing of courses, the failure to eliminate overlapping and duplication, the refusal to cooperate with other departments, and the intensification of departmentalism are a violation of our tradition. Such practices put focus upon the well being of the department instead of giving attention to the development of the student.

The question becomes, then, how can we remain true to our rhetorical tradition, maintain the gains of the last

forty years, and at the same time continue to grow in concept and pedagogical method. It is the belief of the present writer that the answer lies, partly at least, in recognition of five propositions.

The first proposition involves the necessity for departmental planning in terms of the overall curriculum. We need to recognize what Claude E. Kantner has called "a two way relation." Kantner says:

The first phase of this relationship is that the ability of an individual to express himself is constantly limited in terms of everything that he has done and learned—in short, what he is. . . . The total communicative effectiveness is deeply imbedded in the whole educational process. . . . The opposite phase of this double edged relationship is that the ability of the individual to make a functional use of what he has learned is constantly being limited by his ability to express himself. This is where we come in. Our job is to teach these students how to tap and organize and present orally these latent resources—to free him as it were from the fetters of inarticulateness.⁴

If we are to be worthy of our tradition, we must guide our students in the development of wholesome personal and social attitudes, we must stimulate them to do sound thinking as well as to perfect their techniques of speaking.

Second, the teachers of speech for undergraduates must be broadly educated. It is here that we are probably most vulnerable to the criticisms made by the proponents of general education. Many departments of speech are made up of specialists—debate coaches, interpretation teachers, play directors, theatre technicians, and speech correctionists. These teachers, hired to teach their specialty, often have their teaching loads filled out with a course or two of fundamentals or public speaking. As a result, the student who most needs in-

³ Hubert Heffner, "Speech and Liberal Education," *Western Speech*, XI (February, 1947), pp. 10-16.

⁴ Claude E. Kantner, "Speech and Education in a Democracy," *The Southern Speech Journal*, XVII (Speech, 1951), pp. 14-22.

struction under a broadly educated person gets a half-hearted course from a teacher who frankly admits he is bored with first year students. For the basic courses we need teachers who are enthusiastic about teaching speech, who have training in all phases of speech, and who have considerable backgrounds in other liberal arts subjects: English, foreign language, history, sociology, economics, government, psychology, philosophy, and science. In these days when some would split our ranks into little cliques, with an association for each, we need teachers who are emphatically speech teachers first and directors of debate, play directors, and speech scientists second.

The third proposition concerns setting for ourselves high academic standards. A year or so ago we read the criticisms that Judge Saul S. Streit made with reference to inter-collegiate athletics. In commenting upon one case, Judge Streit pointed out that a student basketball player in his senior year enrolled in music seminar, oil painting, rhythms and dance, public speaking, and physical education. Judge Streit implied that the student had taken a light schedule in order to stay eligible. It was somewhat humiliating to find public speaking among this student's courses. How is speech regarded on your campus? Is it considered a snap course? On some campuses this criticism is justified—speech courses are superficial and non-academic. In spite of the impression created by the recent tendency for streamlining, the writers of rhetorical theory since the fifth century B.C. have accumulated a substantial body of teachable material. Among the contributors have been such profound thinkers and teachers as Isocrates, Aristotle, Cicero, Quintilian, Wilson, Blair, Campbell, Whately, Winans, Foster, Wool-

bert, Baird, and a host of others. Modern speech teachers have conducted extensive research, have utilized the rich findings of related areas, and have adopted the latest pedagogical methods. The department of speech has as much to offer to liberal education and the three-hour speech course deserves as much of the student's time and energy as any other three-hour course in the curriculum.

In guarding academic standards we need to avoid letting our departments become cure-alls and catch-alls. Many worthwhile accomplishments may result from the efforts of the speech teacher, but in his enthusiasm he should keep constantly in mind his primary purpose—to teach students how to speak intelligently, effectively, and responsibly. Indeed, it is not a primary objective in a three-hour speech course to develop personality, to present a course in human relations, to teach general semantics, or to promote world reform. For the speech teacher to assume additional responsibilities is to make him a "jack of all trades and master of none." Although these activities and others may be teachable and worthy of consideration elsewhere, they only serve to scatter the efforts of the speech teacher. To establish sound habits of speech is usually sufficient to keep even the energetic teacher busy.

Fourth, it seems to me that we must recognize that the department of speech has an important function as a service department.⁵ Generally speaking upon many campuses the major share of the speech enrollment is concentrated in the basic courses—usually fundamentals of speech or public speaking. The great majority of the students who enroll in these courses come from other depart-

⁵ See T. Earle Johnson, "The Speech Curriculum in the College," *ibid.*, XIV (March, 1949), pp. 225-228.

ments; they take no more than one or two speech courses; they have no special aptitudes in speech; and they often schedule a speech course in order to fulfill a departmental or college requirement. We owe to these students the very best in course planning, in effort expended, and in instructional skill. And certainly if we are to succeed in developing proficiency among these students we must give our best. Perhaps then we should concentrate more effort here than we do in many departments.

Fifth, we should make sure that our majors receive a broad liberal education. Majors, perhaps, should be limited to those persons with special aptitudes in speech. In comparison with total enrollment of a department this number should be small. Majors should meet at least three requirements: (1) they should take work in several areas of

speech including at least fundamentals, public speaking, discussion and debate, interpretation, drama, and radio; (2) they should be limited in the total hours that they can take in any one speech area and in the total hours that they can take in all areas; and (3) they should be encouraged to build wide back grounds in the other liberal arts subjects.

Under the right direction and teaching, training in speech has much to offer the student and democratic society. But probably more than most subjects in the curriculum, the contribution of speech depends heavily upon the conditions under which it is taught and upon a well-trained teacher with a sound educational philosophy, a thorough understanding of rhetorical principles, and knowledge of social and political problems.

THE FUNCTIONAL FALSETTO VOICE

Bryng Bryngelson

I REFER to the high school or college student whose voice register has not lowered through normal maturation. The speech mechanism is normal.

One finds these cases more often among the males. Usually, these patients have never heard their low pitch, although they usually have one when laughing and clearing the throat. Some can even sing on a lower pitch.

Clinically it is advisable through the earphone technic to have them hear their lower pitch. Once the sound sensation is heard, the clinician can stimulate the patient's ear using the low pitch by use of the earphone. The clinician speaks the low tone into the earphone attached to the patient. Then let him hear it by speaking into the funnel.

When discrimination has been established, it is quite easy for the patient voluntarily to produce the low pitch. Then one can proceed to drill the patient in using the low pitch in the following steps:

1. Practice reading aloud in low pitch.
2. In clinical conferences, have the patient read aloud, varying the intensity and emphasis—restimulate his hearing with the low pitch, by use of earphone.
3. Transfer low pitch speech into conversation (simple sentences first).
4. Assign patient to use his low pitch in social conversation.
5. In conferences, have him voluntarily reproduce the high pitch alternately with the low pitch. This is called

negative practice. This assures him of voluntary control over the involuntary high pitch.

6. In social conversation, he should be asked to keep track of the number of times the high pitch encroaches on his low pitch. These times of interruption will become fewer and fewer, and ultimately the low pitch will be established as a normal way of speaking.

The above practices tend to accustom the patient to a normal pitch which for him has appeared to be abnormal. If wholehearted cooperation is in effect and the clinician has been able to adjust the patient psychologically to the new pitch pattern, the patient should on the average acquire a new way of speaking in about three weeks.

One such patient might be of interest from the point of maturation both psychologically and physiologically.

Arnold was sent to me by an English teacher, whose only criticism of him was that his voice pitch didn't go with his sex.

The first conference was given over to the recognition of a normal low pitch possessed by Arnold in singing and laughing. The binaurals were used for discriminatory purposes—his first vocal exercise was that of singing in the low pitch. A recording of this voice was listened to and evaluated as to degree of difference from his customary falsetto. In order to prove to him that the low pitch was more desirable he was presented to a group of twenty-five students who all testified their preference for the low pitch. Given this assurance,

Mr. Bryngelson (Ph.D., Iowa, 1931) is Professor of Speech and Director of Speech Pathology at the University of Minnesota.

he was sent out on daily speaking projects—trying to keep the high pitches from appearing. He called them “involuntary spasms.” From May 5 to May 27, a period of twenty-five days, he kept close track of the high pitches. The pattern when completed turned out to be a typical one for these cases. The first day, he had what he preferred to call 20 spasms—16 the second—7 the third—4 the fourth—3 the fifth—1 the sixth day. He experienced three on the eighth day and from then on no spasms appeared.

Because of his extroverted personality he purposely used both voices in making dates and at social affairs when he wanted to have fun. One cannot recommend this type of free negative practice to a case of this type of voice problem if he tends toward extraversion. He isn't

likely to get the real joy out of this kind of humor. He only wants to be able to use his low pitch at all times.

From my experience with about twenty-five such functional falsetto patients, I would say that the clinical therapy involved is not at all complicated once adequate rapport has been established and the patient has a high degree of motivation to change.

Some high pitched voices are due to an underdeveloped larynx and others to anatomic barriers. What has been described here is the functional type in which the normal adolescent voice change did not take place. Therefore a differential diagnosis is essential in this type of problem similar to that of many other kinds of speech problems encountered by speech clinicians.

THE LINGUIST, THE FRESHMAN, AND THE PURIST

Lionel Crocker

THE college freshman, as the title suggests, is caught in the middle in the dispute that arises between the linguists and the purists over the teaching of English grammar. As a result of the difference of opinion the freshman, without having much to say about it, finds himself in the remedial English section. This solution of the problem satisfies no one, least of all the freshman, who does not relish being the victim of these two specialists. The purist is winning out in the struggle, for the college freshman, when he has youngsters, is going to see to it that grammar is taught in grammar school. He wants to put a stop to the ignominy of remedial English at the college level. In the battery of tests administered to freshmen, all the scores may be satisfactory, except English. Why? The tests in English are made out by purists who want the freshman to know, among other things, what a gerund is, but the student has been educated, up to this point, under the linguist's philosophy and is totally unprepared for tests in formal grammar and diction.

What is the linguist's philosophy of language? Well, the linguist argues that no one should be taught grammar until he has something to analyze. The soundness of this argument has driven the study of grammar from the grades. However, the student never studies grammar anywhere in the curriculum, except perhaps in the Latin class, and few students offer Latin for entrance nowadays.

Mr. Crocker (Ph.D., Michigan, 1933) is Chairman of the Department of Speech at Denison University.

The linguist looks upon English as a living, dynamic phenomenon, not as a dead language. The linguists say we cannot be as dogmatic about English as purists want us to be. The linguists think it is unscientific to ignore the changes that are constantly taking place in English syntax and usage. On the other hand, the purists insist on the students writing "standard English," which means according to the established rules of grammar.

Pity the poor college freshman and his struggle with English, for it seems he is the sport and prey of the linguist on the one hand and the purist on the other. The linguist, Sterling A. Leonard, for example, in his discussion of Current English Grammar, classifies expressions as "established," "disputable," and "illiterate." When confronted on a multiple choice test with the following expressions, which Leonard classifies as "established," the freshman may check them as O.K. only to find that the purist turns thumbs down on them. Not only does the freshman's performance on the test condemn him to the remedial English section, but he runs the danger of being considered as not quite bright.

Who are you looking for?

Invite whoever you like to the party.

It says in the book that . . .

None of them are here.

Everyone was here, but they all went home early.

I have no prejudices, and that is the cause of my unpopularity.

It is me.

If it had been us, we would admit it.

We will try and get it.

My father walked very slow down the street.

They invited my friends and myself.
I'd like to make a correction.

If it wasn't for football, school life would be dull.

I wish I was wonderful.

The quarrel, that is going on between the purists and the linguists, is reflected in the titles of their publications. The purist queries, *Who Killed Grammar?* and the linguist admonishes, *Leave Your English Alone!* But when the college freshman submits to entrance tests, there is no nonsense about it. The purist is in command. The freshman must know formal grammar, or else.

The teachers, who man the remedial sections, are all old timers. They know their Latin. They have been nurtured on Reed and Kellogg or Woolley's *Handbook*. In regard to usage, the dictionary is offered by the purists as the infallible guide. Yet the dictionary, the linguists say, is several years behind the times in recording usage. Writers of freshman composition texts stressing grammar have found a lucrative field.

But the linguists are being driven from the field of battle and grammar is going back into the grades. No doubt the linguists are shaking their heads to think English is again going to be throttled by a formal grammar that is derived almost entirely from writing.

Should the grammar and usage of the spoken language determine the theory of the textbooks in English composition? The linguists say that certainly such usage should be taken into account.

Sterling A. Leonard consulted speech teachers in establishing usage. But we must remember that such a constantly changing usage is difficult to teach. There is too much room for difference of opinion. The purist, when he uses his blue pencil, wants to be sure that he is absolutely correct. He yearns to put in the margin of the theme, *See p. 215, rule 7b.*

But the college freshman is sick of being the goat in this little game. For the next fifty years we are going to have formal grammar taught again, where the purists say it should be taught, in the grammar schools. The linguist had a good point about language being a science and that it should be treated scientifically, and it is too bad to see him lose out in the struggle. If the linguist could have sold the high school on the necessity of teaching grammar, the scientific attitude toward language might have prevailed. But high school teachers do not want to teach grammar, and the high schools students do not want to study it. Maybe in the year 2000, when the linguists again get up enough momentum to challenge the purist they can get the curriculum adjusted so that the students can study language analysis when they are ready for it.

In the meantime the college freshman is bewildered. He is not stupid. He just has been given a tough break. You can bet his children will know formal grammar. He may be as uncomfortable as Arthur Godfrey seems when he says, "And *whom* did you bring us this evening?" but he will say it nevertheless, and he will see to it that his children say it. Exit linguist, scowling.

"ONCE UPON A TIME"

Gabrielle Casebier

THERE are many reasons for learning how to tell a story, but the most important one is that children enjoy hearing stories. The realization that they prefer stories well told to those which are read is causing the art of storytelling to come into its own again.

A story well told depends upon many things. The first is a wise selection which depends first, upon the likes and dislikes and the temperament of the narrator. For example, some storytellers bring out the dignity and grandeur of such hero tales as *William Tell* and *St. George and the Dragon*, while others have more success with *The Red Shoes*—a story which demands much delicacy and humor. Second, the selection should depend upon the interests of children. From babyhood through the second grade, they enjoy the sound of rhythmic phrases. *Millions of Cats* illustrates the rhythmic repetition of words which children enjoy so much:

Cats here and cats there,
Cats and kittens everywhere;
Hundreds and thousands and millions of cats,
Millions and billions and trillions of cats.

For grades three through six the story is of greatest interest. The characters must live through much dialogue and action, as does "Jo" in *Little Women*. Stories with detailed description and long analysis of characters should be avoided. Margaret Bailey's *Seven Peas in the Pod*, Lewis Carroll's *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*, and Ruth Saw-

yer's *Picture Tales from Spain* and similar stories fulfill these requirements.

After the tale has been selected and the audience comfortably seated, the narrator should begin by explaining the meaning of all difficult words which if misunderstood would entirely alter the picture about to be presented.

After the explanations are made, attention should be obtained with the first statement. The beginning sentence of many stories makes a good first statement. The striking first line of *The Squirrel Who was Scared* begins: "Once there was a squirrel who got out on a limb, took one look at the ground—and swooned." From that point the story should move picture by picture.

The vividness with which children see the pictures of a good story is brought out in *Brother Rabbit and the Little Girl* by Joel Chandler Harris. Uncle Remus was telling a little boy about the time Brer Babbit was caught, tied, and left in charge of a little girl. Uncle Remus explained that Brer Rabbit entertained the little girl for a while by singing. Then the rabbit explained that he could dance as well as sing if he were untied. Immediately the little girl untied him. At this point in the story Uncle Remus paused and his alert listener asked, "Did the Rabbit dance, Uncle Remus?"

Particular attention should also be given to the technique of timing. Each story must be timed individually. *General William Booth Enters into Heaven* requires a particular sort of rhythm, *Come Hither* depends on careful paus-

Miss Casebier is Associate Professor of Speech at Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant.

ing, while *The Little Lamé Prince* must move slowly. The element of suspense is also heightened by careful timing. Children may have heard *The Bear that Wasn't* many times, but they still wait breathlessly for the second vice-president to take the bear to the first vice-president for punishment.

When the story is finished, point no moral. The story itself should shape the reactions; if there are no reactions, no amount of explanation will help.

The final test of a performance rests with the children. They will know unmistakably what it is worth. A storyteller once told *Jack and the Beanstalk* to a group of children. When the entire story of Jack had unfolded and the children were still living it, one little boy remarked, "Gee, that was neat. Tell us another story." The performance had been evaluated.

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SPEECH SPORTSMANSHIP

Burton H. Byers

PERHAPS the "win at any cost" school of thought is too prevalent among coaches, players, and spectators at our school athletic contests. There are no doubt many parents and alumni who have greater admiration for the coach whose teams win than for the coach who teaches ideals of sportsmanship, win or lose. But at any rate, the word "sportsmanship" gets a sympathetic response when it is applied to athletic contests. People know about it. They have a good idea of what it means. They think it is a good thing. Fans do not enjoy seeing one player deliberately foul another. Generally speaking, fans get quite indignant when they become aware that one or the other team is employing unfair tactics to win the game. This writer is of the opinion that teachers of speech communication might quite possibly perform a real service by placing special emphasis on speech sportsmanship.

The use of unfair tactics in spoken or written argument is dangerous in a democratic society. A civilized man is at a distinct disadvantage in mortal combat with a primitive. A man unhampered by any concept of what is fair is more than a match for a man who instinctively follows the rules of the boxing ring. A speaker who feels that he must be decent, honest, fair, and reasonable is at a decided disadvantage in argument with a primitive who knows no ethics, unless the audience is made

up of persons who recognize and admire fair and reasoned argumentation.

If a boxer insists on using a spiked club; if a bridge player insists on withholding a singleton king when an opposing player leads the ace of that suit; if a football team insists on running around the sides of the field to make its touchdowns and forces the scorekeeper to mark them up at the point of a gun; it is clear that the game is ruined. It is no longer any fun. It's not fair. The primitives have wrecked the game by playing outside the rules. If it is the custom for a candidate who loses an election to raise a vigilante band to seize by force what he could not win at the polls, it is clear that a political primitive is at work, and that the institution of the free election has been subverted. It no longer serves as a decision making agency in a free society.

If a speaker engaged in the game of free discussion introduces deliberate misrepresentation, the calculated lie, willful deceit; if he deliberately obscures issues; if he expends his major effort in casting doubt and suspicion on the motives of those who disagree with him—he has the same effect on the discussion that an athlete playing outside the rules has on the game. He breaks it up. He makes suckers of his fellow speakers and of his audience unless all are alert to force him to speak honestly and to the point at issue.

The methods used by totalitarian governments to break up the game of free discussion have been described by Hitler, Goebbels, Mussolini, Lenin, and Stalin. They have been illustrated in

Mr. Byers (M.A., Iowa, 1940), is an Instructor Guidance Consultant, The Provost Marshal General's School, Camp Gordon, Georgia

detail in the modern totalitarian mass states. They have been vividly satirized by George Orwell in his frightening novel, *1984*. These methods consist of fostering contempt for the rules by which free discussion can be effective. By creating whole generations of speech primitives, dictators insure that freedom of thought and expression cannot survive.

In a totalitarian society, language is another weapon with which to keep the mass of men under the control of the leaders. That speaker or writer is best who, by whatever means, can best create unthinking, uncritical responses favorable to the policies of the rulers. It doesn't matter, in a totalitarian society, whether a speaker's ethics are primitive or civilized, so long as the speaker gets the desired results. Sensitivity to truth, honesty, and fair dealing are classified among the contemptible weaknesses of democratic peoples.

In a democratic society, speech is the principal medium through which men communicate in policy making discussion. By means of speech, democratic citizens attempt to realize the goal of the free marketplace of ideas, in which all ideas get a fair hearing by all men concerned with the problem at hand. Only when this has been accomplished, the decision is taken. Decisions thus arrived at have three principal advantages: they are better, more often than not, than decisions taken by one man or by a small group; they are better implemented, because all concerned understand and are emotionally involved in the decision they have helped to make. Most important of all, this process of making decisions stimulates each person who participates to reach out for his highest potential in growth toward maturity and responsibility. Sensitivity to truth, honesty, and fair dealing are

classified among the greatest strengths of democratic peoples.

The primitive speaker, the wielder of the verbal brass knuckles, is no stranger in America. He has been with us always. The speech primitives probably attacked Jefferson more viciously than either candidate was attacked in the 1952 election, and the debate on the Alien and Sedition Acts probably saw more deliberate misrepresentation and vicious *non sequiturs* than any major debate of our own time. Perhaps the writer is unduly alarmed at the cynical disregard for honesty and fair dealing displayed by so many popular speakers. Radio hucksters, political orators, and even some religious speakers do not seem to feel it wrong to be a speech primitive for a good cause—or a fast buck.

Such speaking often succeeds, or it would not be repeatedly practiced; and its success would seem to indicate that many Americans, who would be quick to recognize and resent a foul in a ball game, are unable to recognize a foul when it occurs in argument and are not disturbed when they do recognize one. To the extent that this charge is true, we speech teachers must be concerned, for we are in a good position to contribute to correcting the difficulty.

We teachers of language communication can render a special service by teaching what constitutes a "foul" in democratic discussion and argument. Along with all teachers, we must help develop the attitudes which make sportsmanship possible. In addition, we need to think through, again, the special requirements of language communication in a free society.

The speaker who participates in the free marketplace of ideas must have attitudes which are distinctly different from the attitudes of the primitive

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speaker. He must be able to speak well enough to get his ideas a fair hearing, but he must also be willing to stop with a fair hearing and listen respectfully to another point of view. While the democratic speaker must scorn to use unfair tactics, he must be quick to recognize such tactics in speakers who disagree with him, and he must be able to clarify them for his listeners. Perhaps most important of all, democratic listeners must be at least as quick to condemn unfair tactics in argument as to condemn unfair practices on the basketball court or the playing field.

In a totalitarian society, it is generally held that the ends justify the means. A person who believes in democracy is likely to think that greater wisdom was expressed by Emerson when he wrote that the ends pre-exist in the means. The means by which discussion is carried on, as well as the decisions resulting from the discussion, are important in a free society. A primitive let loose in the free marketplace of ideas would turn the marketplace into a shambles unless the other inhabitants were alert to defend their institution. Free minds and free men cannot exist without widespread understanding of, and support for, the ethics which make freedom of thought and expression a workable concept. The ends of democracy are in fact means—means which stimulate each individual member of the society to stretch himself in an attempt to

realize his highest potential for human dignity and responsibility.

The institutions by which, in a democratic society, the ideal of individual freedom is supported are those institutions involving discussion and debate, the institutions by which democratic citizens make joint decisions. Expressed through elections and through the innumerable business, social, political, educational, and religious organizations that make up our pluralistic society, the free marketplace of ideas is the means by which we hope to keep our society both free and strong. Freedom of thought and expression, however, rests on the ability and the disposition of the participants to play within the rules. An important part of the defense of free society is to identify these rules, and to teach them to every student, old and young. Teachers of speech communication can, if they will, contribute mightily to this end.

What are the essential rules of the game of democratic discussion and argument? What attitudes must a person learn as he grows up in a free society, in order to participate effectively in democratic argument and discussion? What are the characteristics which distinguish a democratic speaker or writer from a primitive? This writer urges all teachers to think through, again, the ethics of language communication in a free society.

THE FORUM

EXCERPTS FROM THE MINUTES OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

Statler Hotel, New York City

December 27-30, 1953

The Speech Association of America transacted the following items of business:¹

Elected new officers and members of the Council. See complete list in front of this issue.

Approved a revised budget of \$49,125.00 for the current fiscal year, and \$53,125.00 for the next fiscal year. A copy of these budgets appears in the pages following.

Announced election by the membership of the following three people to the Nominating Committee: A. Craig Baird, Magdalene Kramer, Karl Robinson. The Executive Council elected two additional members: Charles Layton and Loren Reid. The report of the Nominating Committee will be printed in the September issue of *The Speech Teacher*.

Announced that Waldo Braden had been elected by the Executive Council (by mail ballot) to fill the position of Executive Secretary from July 1, 1954 to July 1, 1957. Elected Henry R. Mueller Editor of *The Speech Teacher* for the three-year period 1955-1957.

Decided to meet in Washington, D. C., in 1959 and in Denver, Colorado, in 1961, if satisfactory arrangements can be made. Instructed Committee on Time and Place to explore possible meeting places for 1960 and 1962. Confirmed arrangements to meet in Chicago in 1954, Los Angeles in 1955, Chicago in 1956 (all during last week in December), Boston in 1957 (last week in August), and Chicago in 1958 (last week in December).

Endorsed in principle the repeal of the tax on theatre admissions.

Decided that when a member of SAA, who has held membership for 25 years or more, reaches retirement age at his institution, he be issued an appropriately worded Gold Card, granting him henceforth free admission to our national conventions.

Received reports of officers and committees.

Heard report from the Committee on Case Studies of Public Address on the Issue of Anti-

Slavery and Disunion that it has secured a publisher for its volume. Heard report from the Committee on Background Studies in the History of Speech Education that its volume is almost ready for publication. Heard report that the volume sponsored by the Committee on the History and Criticism of American Public Address (Vol. III) is now in press. Heard report that the material on "A Speech Program in the Secondary School," prepared by a special committee of SAA, would appear in the January issue of *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*. Heard report that the Graduate Record Examination Committee has completed its work and that the tests in Speech are now available.

Heard report from Committee on Structure. See complete report at end of minutes. The Council approved the general concept of the plan in principle and empowered the incoming President to appoint a committee to consider necessary revision of the Constitution (the committee to report in the October *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and the November *Speech Teacher*), the report to be considered by the Council at a meeting just prior to the 1954 Convention and voted on by the membership at a special business meeting at the Convention. At a business meeting the Association members voted that the proposal of the Committee on Structure be referred to the constitutional revision committee, without prejudice. The Association members also voted to refer the proposed constitutional amendment, published in the October, 1953, *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and the November, 1953, *Speech Teacher*, to the constitutional revision committee.

Supported plan of Committee on Problems in the Secondary School to sponsor preparation of a course of study in speech fundamentals for the secondary school.

Approved proposal of Committee on History of American Public Address that it be given permission to appoint a sub-committee to pursue investigation of possible projects in the public address of the South.

Made changes in committee structure and personnel. See list of committees following.

COMMITTEES FOR 1954

(The chairman of each committee is named first. Members ex officio are listed in italics.)

¹ A complete, mimeographed copy of the minutes may be obtained from the Executive Secretary, Speech Association of America, 12 E. Bloomington St., Iowa City, Iowa.

ADVISORY COMMITTEES

COMMITTEE ON COMMITTEES: *Karl R. Wallace, Thomas Rousse, H. P. Constans, Elva Van Haitsma, Paul D. Bagwell, Waldo Braden, Jeffery Auer, Wilbur S. Howell, Dallas C. Dickey.*

FINANCE: Rupert L. Cortright (Chairman July 1, 1953 to July 1, 1954), James H. McBurney (Chairman July 1, 1954 to July 1, 1955), Loren Reid, *Waldo Braden.*

PUBLICATIONS: William M. Sattler, Carl Englund, William McCoard, *Karl R. Wallace, Frank Whiting, John V. Irwin, Waldo Braden, Jeffery Auer, Wilbur S. Howell, Dallas C. Dickey, Paul D. Bagwell.*

TIME AND PLACE: Kenneth G. Hance, Milton Dickens, H. Darkes Albright, Elbert Harrington, Wesley Wiksell, *Waldo Braden.*

PUBLIC RELATIONS: Paul D. Bagwell, Magdalene Kramer, Andrew T. Weaver, *Karl Wallace, Waldo Braden.*

COMMITTEE ON POLICY: Rupert L. Cortright, James H. McBurney, Horace G. Rahskopf, Wilbur E. Gilman, Lionel G. Crocker, H. P. Constans.

COORDINATING COMMITTEES

COMMITTEE ON COOPERATION BETWEEN SAA AND OTHER RELATED ORGANIZATIONS: Thomas A. Rousse, Ralph Nichols, Hugo Hellman, Paul Moore, Hubert Heffner, Robert Schacht.

COMMITTEE ON COOPERATION BETWEEN SAA AND REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS: Paul D. Bagwell, and the Presidents of CSSA, WSSA, SSA, SAES, PSA.

SERVICE COMMITTEES

CONTEMPORARY PUBLIC ADDRESS: A. Craig Baird, Lester Thonssen, Thomas L. Dahle, John W. Bachman, Roy McCall, Charles Redding, Theodore Kennedy, Ernest J. Wrage, Thomas Daly (Consultant, Vital Speeches).

INTERCOLLEGIATE DISCUSSION AND DEBATE: Robert G. Gunderson will be the SAA representative to January 1, 1955. The other members of the committee are representatives from TKA, PKD, DSR and PRP. The chairmanship rotates.

TEACHING SPEECH TO FOREIGN STUDENTS: Albert T. Cordray, Gifford Blyton, James Abel, Henry Moser, Ivan Putman, Jr.

INTERNATIONAL DISCUSSION AND DEBATE: Anna-bell Dunham Hagood, Gordon F. Hostettler, Halbert Guley, Margaret Wood, Alan Nichols, Paul Carmack, Brooks Quimby, Franklin R. Shirley, Mildred E. Adams (Consultant, Institute on International Education).

COMMITTEE ON DISCUSSION AND GROUP METHODS: William E. Utterback, Franklyn S. Haiman, Carroll C. Arnold, John W. Keltner, H. L. Ewbank, Sr., Kim Giffin, Helen Schrader, N. Edd Miller, Dean Barnlund.

COMMITTEE ON ARCHIVES: L. Leroy Cowperthwaite, J. Jeffery Auer, Lester Thonssen, *Waldo Braden.*

STUDY COMMITTEES

HISTORY OF SPEECH EDUCATION: Edyth Renshaw, Bert Emsley, Ota Thomas Reynolds, Giles W. Gray, Clarence Edney, Douglas Ehninger.

HISTORY OF AMERICAN PUBLIC ADDRESS: George V. Bohman, Robert D. Clark, Dallas C. Dickey, J. Garber Drushal, Marie K. Hochmuth, Donald C. Bryant, W. Norwood Brigance, J. Jeffery Auer, A. Craig Baird, H. L. Ewbank, Sr., Ernest J. Wrage, Laura Crowell, Hollis L. White, Lindsey S. Perkins.

PROBLEMS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: Mardel Ogilvie, C. Agnes Rigney, Elise Hahn, Geraldine Garrison, John J. Pruis, Jean Conyers Ervin, Zelda Horner Kosh.

PROBLEMS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL: Evelyn Konigsberg, Yetta Mitchell, Waldo W. Phelps, Oliver W. Nelson, Mary Blackburn, Chas. L. Balcer, Freda Kenner, Lawrence S. Jenness, Hayden K. Carruth, Bea Olmstead, Mrs. O. J. Whitworth.

PROBLEMS IN UNDERGRADUATE STUDY: Donald E. Hargis, Mildred F. Betty, William H. Perkins, A. L. Thurman, Jr., H. L. Ewbank, Jr., Roberta Buchanan, Robert A. Johnston, Arthur Eisenstadt, Wilbur Moore, Alan W. Huckleberry, Solomon Simonson.

PROBLEMS IN GRADUATE STUDY: Magdalene Kramer, Clyde W. Dow, Claude Kantner, Horace Rahskopf, Norman Philbrick.

PROBLEMS IN TEACHING SPEECH TO PREACHERS: Charles A. McGlon, Charles E. Weniger, Fred J. Barton, George William Smith, Lowell G. McCoy, John J. Rudin, Fr. Edward P. Atzert, Abraham Tauber.

PROBLEMS IN RADIO AND TELEVISION: (Chairman to be named) Giraud Chester, E. Wm. Ziebarth, Forest L. Whan, D. Glenn Starlin, James D. Davis, Ola Hiller, Otis Walter, Marguerite Fleming, John Roberts, Sydney Head. (Authorized to name two consultants.)

PROBLEMS IN TEACHING SPEECH IN THE ARMED SERVICES: (Chairman to be named) Earnest Brandenburg, Cyril Hager, Ralph E. Frybarger, Eu-

gene E. Myers, C. David Cornell, George Batka, H. Hardy Perritt, Paul R. Beall.

PROBLEMS IN MOTION PICTURES AND VISUAL AIDS: Karl F. Robinson, Harold Nelson, C. R. Carpenter, H. Barrett Davis, Clair R. Tettemer, John Dietrich.

PROBLEMS IN VOICE SCIENCE: Clarence Simon, Eleanor Luse, Dorothy Huntington, Gordon Peterson, T. D. Hanley, Charlotte G. Wells.

PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE IN SPEECH: Ross Scanlan, Robert T. Oliver, Howard Gilkinson, Orville L. Pence, Milton Dickens.

PROBLEMS IN PHONETICS: Hilda Fisher, William R. Tiffany, Gladys E. Lynch, C. K. Thomas, Malcolm C. Cox.

*PROBLEMS IN INTERPRETATION: Althea Smith Mattingly, Garff Wilson, Charlotte Lee, John Van Meter, Ray Irwin, Frederick Packard.

PROBLEMS IN PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE: Joseph O'Brien, Alice Sturgis, Carl Dallinger, Kenneth Shanks, Charley A. Leistner, Wayne Brockriede, James L. Golden.

PROBLEMS IN ADULT EDUCATION: Wesley Wiksell, Harold T. Zelko, James N. Holm, Charles T. Estes, Harold O. Haskett, P. E. Lull, Franklin Knower, Earnest Brandenburg.

PROJECT COMMITTEES

VOLUME OF BACKGROUND STUDIES IN THE HISTORY OF SPEECH EDUCATION IN AMERICA: Karl R. Wallace, Warren Guthrie, Frederick W. Haberman, Barnard Hewitt, Harold Westlake, C. M. Wise.

VOLUME III of *The History and Criticism of American Public Address*: Marie K. Hochmuth, Donald C. Bryant, W. Norwood Brigrance.

VOLUME OF STUDIES OF PUBLIC ADDRESS ON THE ISSUE OF ANTI-SLAVERY AND DISUNION circa 1860: J. Jeffery Auer, A. Craig Baird, H. L. Ewbank, Sr.

VOLUME OF STUDIES IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD OF AMERICAN PUBLIC ADDRESS: George V. Bohman, Dallas C. Dickey, Ernest J. Wrage.

MICROFILMING OF RESOURCE MATERIALS IN THE FIELD OF SPEECH: Albert E. Johnson, Frederick W. Haberman, George R. Kernodle, William W. Melnitz, Hubert C. Heffner, Richard Moody, Robert Dierlam

Ad Hoc COMMITTEES

COMMITTEE ON CODE OF PROFESSIONAL ETHICS: Richard Murphy, Claude E. Kantner, Wilbur E. Gilman, Lester L. Hale, Horace Robinson.

COMMITTEE ON LIAISON WITH NCTE: (Committee to be named).

*Committee on Interpretation: Chairman, Althea Smith Mattingly, Vice-Chairman, Garff Wilson, Secretary, Charlotte Lee.

BUDGETS SUBMITTED BY FINANCE COMMITTEE AND APPROVED BY EXECUTIVE COUNCIL AT 1953 CONVENTION

	Revised Budget 1953-54	Tentative Budget 1954-55
Publications:		
Quarterly Journal	\$ 9,500	\$ 9,500
Speech Monographs	3,500	3,500
Annual Directory	2,750	2,750
Special Printing	600	1,300
Repurchase of Old Copies ..	150	150
Speech Teacher	4,000	4,000
Printing and Mimeographing:		
Stationery	1,400	1,500
New Solicitations	750	600
Renewals	150	150
Placement	400	500
Convention	2,500	2,000
Sustaining Members		
Personnel:		
Officers and Committees ..	1,500	1,700
Secretary and Clerical	11,000	14,500
Dues and Fees:		
American Council on Educ.	100	100
AETA Share of Convention Fee	500	
Commissions and Discounts ..	1,700	1,700
Bank Charges	25	25
Secretary's Bond and Audit	150	150
Other Expenses:		
Postage and Distribution ..	3,500	3,500
Binding	600	600
Office Supplies and Service	1,200	1,200
Insurance	200	250
Office Equipment	400	200
Convention Expense	1,500	1,000
Reserve Fund	500	500
Contingency	500	500
Interest on Notes	50	50
Moving National Office ...		1,200
	49,125	53,125

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STRUCTURE

Paul Bagwell, *Chairman*

The Committee on Structure submits the following proposed plan of organization for the SAA. We propose that the Council approve the general outline of this plan and that a constitutional committee be appointed to work out the details of constitutional revision necessary to implement this proposal and that this committee publish its report in the October, 1954 *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and the No-

member, 1954 *Speech Teacher*, and further that a special two day constitutional convention be called two days prior to the opening of the 1954 annual convention of the Association to consider the adoption of this plan.

OUTLINE OF THE PLAN

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

A policy-making representative body known as the Legislative Assembly.

Membership

1. One representative from each of the states elected by the Regional Associations plus members at large in the proportion of one delegate to every 300 SAA members.
2. Representatives from each of the Regional Associations. (5) (The Regional Presidents.)
3. Fifteen representatives elected at large from the general membership.
4. Two representatives from each area group (Vice-Chairman and Secretary).
5. One representative from each of the four affiliated organizations (ASHA, AETA, AFA, NSSC). The representatives to be elected as are the other officers of the affiliated organizations. (83-105)

Function

1. To determine general policy for the Association.
2. To determine dues.
3. To define the function and scope of the journals.
4. To hear and act upon reports of area groups and other assembly committees.
5. To determine time and place of annual meeting.
6. To meet jointly with the Executive Council to hear the report of the Budget Committee.
7. Standing committees: Credentials, Resolutions, Policy, Publications, Committee on Committees (Past and present National Officers).
 - a. Policy committee: Composed of the five immediate past presidents.
 - b. Publications: composed of three current editors, three immediate past editors and four members named by the Assembly.
8. Elect one member of nominating committee of the Association.

THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL

The administrative body of the Association.

Membership

1. President
2. Two past presidents
3. First Vice-President (Program Chairman)

4. Second Vice-President (Speaker of the Assembly) (Elected by membership annually)

****The second VP becomes First VP and then President.**

5. Editors and immediate past editors of the publications. (Editors elected by the Council and approved by Assembly for 3 year terms.)
6. Executive Vice-President (elected by the Council and approved by Assembly for 3 year terms).
7. Executive Secretary (elected by the Council and approved by Assembly for 3 year terms).
8. Immediate past Executive VP and Executive Secretary.
9. One each from the Area Groups. (Chairmen of these groups.)
10. One each from the Affiliated Associations. (To be elected . . .) (31-34)

Function

1. To administer the finances of the organization through a finance committee.
2. Publish the journals through its editors.
3. Handle all public relations for the Association.
4. Handle liaison activities for the Association.
5. Approve the petition of Area Groups for representation in the Assembly and submit this to the Assembly for final approval and seating of the representatives.
6. Approve petitions of State Associations for representation on the Assembly and submit this to the Assembly for final approval and seating of representatives.
7. Elect one member of the nominating committee and administer the election of three members of the nominating committee from the general membership.
8. Organize and administer the Annual Convention.

AREA GROUPS

To facilitate the accomplishment of the purposes of the association and to assist in the planning of the convention program, areas of interest and/or teaching levels may be organized within the SAA. These areas are called *area groups*. Area Groups may be approved for membership on the Assembly and the Council by petition to the Council defining the scope of the area and listing the members who are interested in work in that area. Such areas as the following may be recognized: Secondary School Speech Teachers, Elementary School Speech Teachers, College, University and Graduate, Adult Speech Education, basic courses;

Speech Education; Rhetoric and Public Address; Forensics; Discussion; Communication; Oral Interpretation; Theatre and Drama; Radio and Television; Linguistic Science and Phonetics; Psychology and Speech Science; Speech and Hearing Disorders; and/or others as determined by need and interest.

Each Group shall be guided by an Area Executive Committee composed of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman, Secretary, and three members elected by the area group for a term of three years. A succession from Secretary to Vice-Chairman to Chairman should be established. An annual election would be held each year.

The Chairman is the representative on the Executive Council and the Vice-Chairman and Secretary are representatives on the Legislative Assembly.

The Vice-Chairman shall plan the annual convention program for that area.

NOMINATING COMMITTEE

Three members of the Nominating Committee would be elected as at present. Two additional members shall be elected—one by the Executive Council, and one by the Legislative Assembly.

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BOOK REVIEWS

Henry L. Mueller, *Editor*

PARLIAMENTARY LAW FOR THE LAYMAN. By Joseph F. O'Brien. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952; pp. 248. \$3.00.

In recent years many writers have tried to improve upon Henry M. Robert's standard work in parliamentary procedure. Some writers have tried to present Robert's "Rules" more clearly and in a better organized fashion; others have codified "new rules." Mr. O'Brien is in the former group, and his new book is one of the more successful.

The text of this book includes a statement of the relationship between parliamentary practice and democratic processes, a formulation of four basic principles of parliamentary discussion, a well organized presentation and clear explanation of the code of rules, a stimulating discussion of parliamentary strategy, and separate chapters on organization, order of business, officers and elections, and legal responsibilities. The non-text portion of the book includes well documented notes, an excellent bibliography of 130 items (forty of which are more than fifty years old), drawings of what to do and what not to do in forty-two specific parliamentary situations, a ready reference chart, and, at the end of each chapter, a list of projects and drills which should delight many teachers, and even some students.

Parliamentary Law for the Layman is not without blemishes, however. Some of them are stylistic. The reader may well wonder about the usefulness of O'Brien's label, "ordinary" motions, to cover main, subsidiary, and privileged motions (page 18). Are the other motions not also ordinary? If not, what is the meaning of "ordinary?" Particularly disturbing is his use of the terms *discussion* and *debate*. These words are used interchangeably throughout the book (see, e.g., pages 7, 16, 104, and 105). Although both discussion and debate operate in parliamentary situations, they operate differently in these situations, as in others. The difference, it would seem, is worth preserving.

Two further shortcomings are to be noted: (1) O'Brien's treatment of the renewal of motions implies that any second use of any secondary motion at the same meeting, even when applied to a new main motion, is a renewal of that secondary motion (pages 152-

157). This is an unusual and not very useful definition of "renewal." (2) O'Brien suggests that the use of the motion to lay on the table for the purpose of killing measures should be discouraged (page 112). This recommendation seems unjustified. First, the motion does not kill a measure: a majority vote may take the measure from the table, just as a majority vote put it there. Second, O'Brien's suggestion seems inconsistent with his general treatment of parliamentary strategy.

But these, after all, are minor shortcomings in a book with so many excellent features. O'Brien has written an accurate, well organized, and helpful textbook. His avowed attempt to write "a simpler and livelier treatment than that given the subject heretofore" is, to a goodly extent, realized.

Parliamentary Law for the Layman should be an excellent college textbook when Robert's *Rules of Order Revised* is used as a reference book. It should be a good college textbook without Robert's work. It should be considered carefully as a possible textbook for a high school course in parliamentary procedure. It is too advanced to be useful as a textbook for a parliamentary procedure unit in a high school speech fundamentals course.

WAYNE E. BROCKRIEDE,
University of Illinois

STURGIS STANDARD CODE OF PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE. By Alice F. Sturgis. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950; pp. 268. \$2.50.

LEARNING PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE. By Alice F. Sturgis. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953; pp. 358. \$4.00.

MASON'S MANUAL OF LEGISLATIVE PROCEDURE. By Paul Mason. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953; pp. 640. \$6.50.

The publication of *Mason's Manual* completes this series designed to end the monopoly of *Robert's Rules*. The *Standard Code*, for deliberative assemblies, and *Learning Parliamentary Procedure*, a textbook, were issued earlier. The *Manual* is for legislative groups,

such as city councils. It is used by the California State Legislature. The series is designed to supply text more readable than Robert's prolixity, and to give a modern setting.

The authors have boycotted Robert, and have relied for historical continuity upon Hatsel, Jefferson, and Cushing. Since it is difficult to ignore entirely the book upon which most of us were reared, indirect reference to the standard authority through seventy-seven years appears. Mrs. Sturgis (*Code* page 240) refers to Robert as "one writer on parliamentary procedure."

Two innovations appear in the series. One is the explanation of parliamentary rules in terms of philosophic principles, an attempt consistently to get at the "why" of the rule. To some extent, the principles of parliamentary procedure as they were so clearly set forth years ago in Lesson I of Hall and Sturgis' *Textbook on Parliamentary Law* permeate the books. This circumstance imposes a bit of a strain at times, since the rules have a Topsy-like way of developing, and no system is without its modifications and exceptions.

The second innovation is that of basing final judgment upon court decisions. The Sturgis books have many references to judicial decisions, and *Mason's Manual* abounds in them. No such thorough documentation of court cases on parliamentary procedure has before appeared. But there is a paradox in the system. In seeking light on a particular parliamentary point, should one go to basic philosophy or to decisions of the courts? The two methods do not always jibe.

There is nothing revolutionary in this new system. After all, books on parliamentary procedure come from a common heritage. In the years to come, teachers will have to decide whether they prefer the King James version or the Revised Standard. But so long as democracy endures, we must all work under fundamental practices and principles, modified now and then, but acceptable to the majority.

RICHARD MURPHY,
University of Illinois

REPRESENTATIVE AMERICAN SPEECHES:
1952-1953. Edited by A. Craig Baird. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1953; pp. 199. \$1.75.

This volume is the sixteenth in this very useful annual series of "The Reference Shelf." If readers who come across it casually, or who

meet it as their first, will consult earlier volumes they will find useful the simple, compact standards of speech criticism given in the introductions. For example, the treatment in the 1947-1948 number dealt with judging a speech, and set forth such definite tests as, "Decide whether the speaker composed the speech attributed to him"; in the 1948-1949 volume, judging ideas in the speech was considered, with such tangible tests as "Ideas are to be measured ultimately by their contribution to truth." These introductions should be brought together, unified, and printed as introduction to one volume.

The editor has consistently explained through the years that he selects not necessarily the best speeches, but "representative" ones. He has a fondness for speeches that produce a quick, noticeable effect. "The good speech is immediately effective," he wrote in 1941-1942. So one finds in this volume President Eisenhower's "I shall go to Korea" speech, most of Richard Nixon's "Pat . . . was born on St. Patrick's Day" television dramatization, and Senator Lehman's "give away" denunciation of off-shore oil.

The editor has a sixth sense for temporal, rhetorical significance, and each of the volumes has the essence of its time. So the present volume has the flavor of the presidential campaign, the departure of Harry Truman, the inaugural of President Eisenhower, the struggle for international trade and peace, the moral and ethical problems of the period, and the struggle of the humanities to endure in a mechanical, mass-motivated world.

Of particular interest are the editor's comments of evaluation in which he reveals his rhetorical principles and standards in taste and politics. John Foster Dulles is described as "without Churchillian eloquence and with a minimum of nuance in voice technique." More debatable are such statements as the one that Eisenhower's inaugural address "fell just short of the character of Lincoln's second inaugural." Rhetoricians, like theologians, do not always agree when standards are specifically applied.

The majority of the texts have been supplied by the speaker or his sponsor, and only one is taken from an oral text in possession of the editor. A Stevenson speech, the one delivered at Salt Lake City, follows the newspaper prerelease, and has some variation from the version given in Stevenson's *Major Campaign Speeches*. Alas, if we could but know in

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RICHARD MURPHY,
University of Illinois

SPEECH: ITS TECHNIQUES AND DISCIPLINES IN A FREE SOCIETY. By William Norwood Brigrance. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952; pp. xix+582. \$4.00.

This textbook emerges from a basic philosophy which is sound and practical. The questions "Why Speak? Who Listens?" are answered with the following fundamentals for speakers:

1. "Effective speaking is a technique."
2. "Effective speaking is an intellectual discipline."
3. "You must earn the right to give every speech."
4. "A speech is not an essay on its hind legs. It does not become a speech until you put it out to the audience by sound waves and light waves."

The content is arranged in an orderly manner. Part I is "Getting Started." "The Rights of Listeners," "Four Fundamentals for Speakers," "First Steps in Managing Ideas and in Managing Yourself" are chapters which help the beginning speaker to get started. The last chapter in this part, "Efficient Listening," supplies a logical transition to Part II, "The Audience." Part III is devoted to "The Speech," beginning with "Selecting the Subject and Purpose," and proceeding in orderly fashion with the steps of arranging thoughts and findings and outlining material. "Using Words," the last chapter in this section, is as valuable to teachers of English as it is to teachers of Speech. Part IV, "The Speaker," includes a wealth of material on voice and the methods of improving it. Part V, "Occasions and Forms," and Part VI, "The Influence of Speechmaking on Industrialism and Democracy" make specific application of the principles of speaking to special conditions.

The importance of the spoken word in an age of radio and television is so well delineated in this book that listeners may read it with as much profit as speakers. The assignments at the ends of chapters are concrete and stimulating.

The textbook is too advanced for use by high

school students, but the high school teacher will find it an indispensable reference.

ELMA M. SPICKARD,
Peoria [Illinois] High School

HOLIDAY PROGRAMS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS. By Aileen Fisher. Boston: Plays, Inc., 1953; pp. x+374. \$3.50.

As its title suggests, this book consists of ready-made programs for those holidays which schools observe. For each special day (nineteen are listed) there is a royalty-free skit or one-act play, a dialogue, and a poem appropriate for an audience of intermediate or upper primary grade pupils.

The idea is a good one, and the book is useful. For instance, most schools must make some observance of Arbor Day, and good program materials are not so numerous as are those for Thanksgiving and Christmas. *Holiday Programs for Boys and Girls* supplies the teacher with a recitation, "Planting a Tree," a dialogue, "Let's Plant a Tree," and a one-act play, "On Strike." The plot is clever: several forest creatures organize a grievance committee and go on strike because the farmer on whose land they live has undertaken to dispose of their homes.

The casts of plays and skits are flexible, making them available to either large or small (if they exist) classes. The staging is so simple that the plays may be presented in the classroom, or be given more elaborate auditorium production for assembly or PTA programs.

Many teachers of primary and intermediate grades will want to keep *Holiday Programs for Boys and Girls* handy on their desks or in some nearby bookshelf. As is to be expected in any collection, however, the teacher will not find all the items in this one equally valuable. Some of the play scripts are richer in words than in action, and lack sufficient sharpness to make the best material for assembly programs. They may prove to be better suited to the less demanding atmosphere of the classroom.

JANE E. MULLETT,
*Hay Edwards School,
Springfield, Illinois*

IN THE PERIODICALS

Oliver W. Nelson, *Editor*

Assisted by Laura Crowell, Thomas R. Nilsen, and Carroll Arnold

SPEECH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Of General Interest

BARNES, MELVIN W., "Learn to Use Plain Talk," *School Executive*, n.v. (December 1953), 50-51.

A brief consideration of the language and appeals capable of carrying the ideas of teachers and administrators into the minds of lay citizens. The author believes the hazards to be overcome are obscurity and banality in language and vagueness in thought. Unless teachers and administrators can "interpret the American public school to the public" with precision and clarity, "the public will question our ability to bring off our other assignments."

BARZUN, JACQUES, "English as She is Not Taught," *Atlantic*, 192 (December 1953), 25-29.

A prominent teacher and author contends that "the danger to the language, if any, does not come from such trifles as poor spelling and irregular grammar. It comes rather from the college-bred millions who regularly write and in the course of their daily work circulate the prevailing mixture of jargon, cant, vogue words and loose syntax that passes for prose." We suffer, he believes, from no decline in the general level of expression but from "the infinite duplication of dufferism" made possible by the mimeograph, the printing press, and the microphone. What we may suffer in consequence, the author suggests, is a loss of clarity and precision in communication, to which the "blithe irresponsibility of the taught"—including professional students and teachers of language—are unfortunately contributing. "The cure is harsh and likely to be unpopular, for it must start with self-denial": cleansing the vocabulary followed by conscious analysis of thought before granting it expression.

BELLO, FRANCIS, "The Information Theory," *Fortune*, n.v. (December 1953), 136-141+.

An extended review of basic concepts in "information theory," written in non-technical language. Extensions of "information theory" are beginning to appear in speech textbooks

and journals, and the general reader will find this article helpful in giving him some small grasp of the source from which these unfamiliar concepts about communication spring.

BELSON, WILLIAM A., "Effect on Recall of Changing Position of a Radio Advertisement," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 37 (October 1953), 402-406.

A report of an experiment with placement of a special, irrelevant auditory stimulus within a context of oral discourse. "Results showed that normal reaction to the advertisement in the interruption placement interfered with perception (of the commercial message) much more" than when the message was placed at the beginning of the discourse. The experiment seems, in general, to confirm the principles of speech composition which stress the importance of unity and coherence in discourse as means of securing listener perception.

BLOOMFIELD, MORTON W., "The Problem of Fact and Value in the Teaching of English," *College English*, 15 (October 1953), 33-37.

A discussion of the values derived from teaching grammatical structure. The author favors some prescription in the teaching of English. It is important that some emphasis be given to correct grammatical usage for reasons of: (1) social utility, (2) aid in understanding the past, (3) aesthetics, and (4) intellectual breadth.

BORTNER, DOYLE M., "Pupil Motivation and Its Relationship to the Activity and Social Drives," *Progressive Education*, 31 (October 1953), 5-11.

Quoting the editors: "This important article takes the position that although specific needs and interests will vary from pupil to pupil, there is a great deal of similarity in the basic drives upon which the teacher can draw for motivation. The article identifies the activity drives and such social drives as security, mastery, recognition, belonging and new adventure. An analysis is made of classroom procedures which encourage motivation based on these drives.

and of those procedures which inhibit such motivation."

BRIGGS, THOMAS H., "Do We Get Our Money's Worth?" *The Educational Forum*, 18 (November 1953), 5-13.

The author believes that much of the criticism of schools today "is really a criticism of ourselves for not having set up objectives that are generally understood and generally accepted." In order that we may profitably evaluate public education in America, he believes, "The public with professional advice, of course, must decide on what it wants from education; and then, leaving the responsibility to management (the teachers) to select what it expertly considers the best means of operation, the public should demand results manifested in terms of the objectives it has approved." Only then, the author concludes, can society determine whether it is getting its money's worth. He proposes a nation-wide course of action based on principles outlined in the article.

CHAMPNEY, FREEMAN, "Liberty and Communication," *The Antioch Review*, 13 (Fall 1953), 303-312.

Examines the problem of civil liberties in relation to the processes of communication. Says Champney, "It is by communicating that we form and test our notions of reality and value. It is in communication that interpersonal conflict develops and it is the pattern of communication (or of non-communication) which determines whether conflict is constructive or destructive, personally as well as social." The writer develops what he terms "principles of communication in a democracy."

CROW, LESTER D., "Attitude Development for International Understanding," *American School Board Journal*, 127 (December 1953), 25-26.

Orienting the reader with regard to the strategic role played by the teacher in helping to form pupil attitudes, the author particularly stresses the need for internationally minded teachers in helping to achieve international understanding.

DOLCH, E. W., AND DON LEEDS, "Vocabulary Tests and Depth of Meaning," *Journal of Educational Research*, 47 (November 1953), 181-189.

This is a report of an interesting study which sought information regarding how well our existing vocabulary tests measure children's

knowledge of word meanings. Results showed that while such tests appear to be suitable for comparing one child with another of comparable age with regard to general field of vocabulary, they do not do a "scientific" job of measuring vocabulary. Such tests ignore all but the most common meaning of a word; they reveal little of the range and depth of meanings the word has for the child. "Tests," the authors suggest, "should tell us not merely that a child 'knows something about' a word, but also how much he knows about it."

EULAU, HEINZ, "Communism and the Abuse of Free Speech," *The Antioch Review*, 13 (Fall 1953), 316-328.

A discussion of the difficult problem of maintaining freedom of speech while at the same time effectively dealing with the abuse of free speech by such groups as Communists, who are the current offenders. In the main, the author's suggestion is a federal law requiring all political propagandists to disclose the origins of the material used and the ideas expressed. "Only by disclosing the source of information can anti-democratic speech be identified and effectively challenged in the market place of ideas. To keep the market free and open becomes a constitutional obligation of the government under the First Amendment. This view is a legitimate extension of the concept of freedom of speech to the peculiar conditions created in the twentieth century by the existence of totalitarian movements which conceal their true character behind the facade of democratic slogans and principles."

FINCH, HARDY, "Record Adventures," *Scholastic Teacher*, 63 (December 2, 1953), 6, 31.

An account of how several successful teachers employ records and recordings in teaching. Purposes include: to teach listening, to provide background for study of literature, to "dramatize" the drama, to enliven reading of poetry, to stimulate reading of books, to celebrate holidays in the classroom and "to illustrate" student reports.

HALL, E. C., "What the Teacher Should Know About Psychiatry," *Progressive Education*, 31 (November 1953), 54-56.

Feeling that it is important for the teacher to be able to recognize and understand the behavior disorders likely to be encountered among pupils, the author offers here brief descriptions of various types of such disorders

and suggests appropriate measures for dealing with them in the classroom.

HINTON, JAMES, "The Spoken Word on Records," *The Reporter*, 10 (January 5, 1954), 33-36.

The author presents a brief history of the recording of the spoken word, an account of the types of speech recorded, and a description and analysis of the marked increase of speech recording in recent years.

JEWETT, ARNO, "Improving the Language Arts Program," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 37 (November 1953), 129-134.

School principals and language arts teachers will find Mr. Jewett's article helpful in studying, evaluating, and developing their language arts curricula as well as their methods and materials of instruction. A list of fifty suggested activities useful in such study is presented.

NICHOLS, RALPH AND ROBERT KELLER, "The Measurement of Communication Skills," *Junior College Journal*, 24 (November 1953), 160-168.

A description of the listening skills test developed by the authors, the effects of special instruction in listening, and the relative effectiveness of the traditional freshman English Composition course and the "communication approach" in teaching communication skills. Findings revealed the latter to be more effective in achieving this objective.

STRANG, RUTH, "What is Communicated?" *The Educational Forum*, 18 (November 1953), 15-19.

Using a "free response" test with a heterogeneous group of 150 seventh-grade pupils in a public junior high school, the author found such things as failure to recognize relationships and to adapt their thinking to various kinds of material with regard to mood, intent and purpose, among the most common pupil weaknesses in reading the materials of the test. The author believes that the "free response test" is the best means we have at present for gaining specific information about what is actually communicated to children, adolescents and adults when they are free to read or listen in their own way to selections of different kinds.

This test should prove a useful device for: (1) diagnosing reading and/or listening abilities and habits, and (2) indicating the kind of

reading and/or speech-listening instruction that may be required.

WALKER, A. J., "What Language Shall We Teach?" *The English Journal*, 42 (November 1953), 431-436+.

A search for a middle course in the teaching of grammar which will fall between the purists on the one hand and the "leave your language alone" school on the other. The author, among other things, urges teachers to remember that language is "alive and vital and changing," not dead and safely embalmed in rules in a textbook. Teachers are advised not to waste time on minor matters or insist on questionable or personal rules. Students should be helped to learn a language that will assist them in finding their proper place in society.

Drama and Interpretation

CALIFORNIA JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, 28 (November 1953), 386-421.

This issue presents a *Symposium: Dramatic Techniques for Developing American Citizens*. Such subjects as "Training in Mass Media Techniques in Secondary Education," "Developing Character and Personality Through Drama," "Creative Dramatics as a Force in Social Adjustment," "Building Student-Audience Appreciation," "Standards of Play Selection at the Secondary Level," "Drama and Therapeutic Effects in Psychiatric Wards of Veterans' Hospital" and others are ably presented by writers representing both public schools and higher institutions of learning.

FIELD, ELIOT, *Players Magazine*, 30 (October 1953), 9.

The Editor of the Department: Drama in the Church calls attention to an interesting form of dramatic adaptation—that of the dramatization of hymns. He suggests the titles of several books which would be helpful to the director interested in this type of production. They include: Brown and Butterworth's *Story of Hymns and Tunes*, Githen's *Visualized Hymns*, Alma Newell Atkin's *Hymn Night Services* and Ernest K. Emurian's *Dramatized Stories of Hymns and Hymn Writers*, the latter published by W. A. Wilde Company, Boston.

KAULHAUSEN, MARIE-HED, "Philological and Speech-Method Interpretation of Poetry," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 39 (October 1953), 340-346.

The author summarizes her article by stating that her purpose has been "to show in what

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way the art of speech was enriched by the morphological method of interpretation but also to point out how the art of speech itself may disclose new areas with regard to theoretical knowledge, and how a connection between philological and speech-method interpretation of poetry may be supposed to enrich the study of philology."

KIRKWOOD, ROBERT, "Amateurs on Stage," *School Activities*, 25 (December 1953), 123-125.

An experienced dramatics director offers some practical and economical suggestions for assuring high quality in high school play production.

PETIT, PAUL B., "Your Solution May Be Arena," *Players Magazine*, 30 (October 1953), 12-15.

Describes how one director solved some of the usual production problems by use of arena staging in a gymnasium.

SCOTT, RICHARD E., "Shakespeare for Beginners," *The English Journal*, 42 (December 1953), 504-506.

Some interesting methods of motivating pupils' interest in reading Shakespeare drawn from the author's experience with junior high school English classes.

SMEDBERG, GEORGE, "Postwar Developments in Stage Lighting," *Educational Theatre Journal*, 5 (October 1953), 253-258.

Reviews the principal developments in the manufacturing of lighting equipment since World War II. Among features reported are: (1) wider range of wattage for reflector and projector lamps, (2) new low amperage arc spot light which can be plugged into 120 V circuit, (3) distortion free scenery projection lenses, and (4) variable dimmers. The writer strongly recommends that school architects consult with stage lighting experts in planning auditoriums and multi-purpose rooms.

TOWNE, FRANK, "Reading is Feeling," *College English*, 15 (November 1953), 112-116.

Mr. Towne takes exception to what he believes to be an abuse of literature by critics: that of "ignoring the literary experience—the actual effect of the work upon them as they read—and gluing their attention to some idea which, upon reflection, they have discovered the work to be an exposition of." Such ideas, he contends, are more properly problems of sociology, history, or philosophy, and to discuss them as literature, he insists, is misguided thinking. "They are," he believes, "discussions of things about which literature is written."

Says Mr. Towne, "If we would have literary as distinguished from philosophical or social, criticism, we ought to reflect, not on the nature of the universe, but on the peculiar nature and combination of emotions to which the reading of a particular piece of literature gives rise."

Plays (The Drama Magazine for Young People) is published monthly from October through May by Plays Incorporated, 8 Arlington Street, Boston 16, Massachusetts.

Teachers unacquainted with this publication may find it helpful in furnishing materials for dramatics classes and assembly programs. Each issue contains a wide assortment of plays in full text for various age groups and other production requirements.

TYLER, GERALD, "Secondary School Drama in Holland," *Dramatics*, 25 (December 1953), 12-13.

Reports, presumably from observation, that while drama in the high schools of Holland may not have attained the recognition gained in this country "for personality development of the pupil," it nevertheless plays "an honoured and respected part in the life of the school." The writer found evidence of creative play making in the grades and use of dramatics as a part of activity teaching method. He reports children having opportunities to hear and see professional companies enact approved plays.

World Theatre, published four times a year by International Theatre Institute under the auspices of UNESCO and distributed in the United States by Theatre Arts Books, 224 West 4th Street, New York 14, N. Y.

An excellent publication bringing together some of the best in children and adult theatre and drama from all parts of the world. Typical tables of content are exemplified by the following taken from Spring 1953 issue: "Problem of Language," Peter Ustinov; "The Burden of the Classics," Jacques Lemarchand; "Realism and Poetry in New American Playwriting," John Gassner; "Projected Scenery," Walter Unruh; "Some Chinese Theatrical Costumes and Their Accessories," A. C. Scott; "The Stage Designer," Kurt Hirschfeld.

It is this reviewer's judgment that every secondary school library should include this fine publication. In its pages the reader may join with the playwright, the playgoer, or the playmaker from France, Denmark, Mexico and many other lands in a common quest for beauty, creative expression and world under-

standing. The journal's international usefulness is enhanced by the fact that its complete text is presented in both English and French.

Public Speaking, Discussion and Debate

ABERNATHY, ELTON, "The Second Affirmative Speech," *Southern Speech Journal*, 19 (September 1953), 53-56.

A statement of criteria which should guide second affirmative debaters in determining whether a "plan" must be offered and in deciding the character of the exposition required where a plan of action is presented. "Entirely too much attention is usually paid to plan by both affirmative and negative," the author believes. It is his judgment that "the great questions of the day can better be discussed in terms of their desirability in principle."

BLAKE, ROBERT R. AND LELAND P. BRADFORD, "Decisions . . . Decisions . . . Decisions!" *Adult Leadership*, 2 (December 1953), 23-24+.

A brief consideration of: (1) fear of consequences, (2) conflicting loyalties, (3) interpersonal conflict, (4) poor methodology, and (5) inadequate leadership as factors which operate to prevent group agreement.

Other articles in this issue of *Adult Leadership* treat such subjects as "The Stranger in the Group" and "Understanding Groups at Work." Although these essays center upon the problems of action, rather than discussion groups, they contain a number of observations interesting to students and teachers of discussion.

CROWELL, LAURA I., "Leadership in Contest Discussion," *Speech Activities*, 9 (Summer 1953), 36-37+.

The author is concerned with the problem of discovering that form of discussion leadership which will help to "make contest discussion an event of real value to the participants." After reviewing several plans, she concludes that the "Round-Rotating Chairmanship"—in which the chairmanship passes from one member to another during the round—is the most effective means of providing leadership in contest discussion because "it is consistent with principles of good discussion and provides a valid basis for measuring participation in tournament discussion."

EDNEY, CLARENCE W., "Forensic Activities: Strengths and Weaknesses," *Southern Speech Journal*, 19 (September 1953), 2-13.

One who has been "contest coach, teacher and administrator" examines modern school and college forensic programs. His special recommendations are "that we re-work our total plan of forensic activity," that "with modification, we retain the forensic tournament," and that "we revise slightly our present practice in arriving at propositions for debate." These proposals and the reasons for them are discussed in considerable detail, making the essay "must reading" for directors of interscholastic and intercollegiate forensic activities.

LA RUSSO, DOMINIC A., "The Panel of Americans: An Experiment in Human Relations," *Speech Activities*, 9 (Summer 1953), 34-35+.

The author defines the general purpose of Panel of Americans as that of doing "something constructive about the problem of racial and religious intolerance in America." Although, in the main, the method of Panel of Americans is characterized by group endeavor with co-operation as its motivating spirit and discussion as its mode of operation, the author stresses the unique features of the plan followed at the University of Washington.

MILES, MATHEW B., "Human Relations Training: How a Group Grows," *Teachers College Record*, 55 (November 1953), 90-96.

In view of the increasing emphasis on group work, on collaboration and co-operative problem-solving, the author has described and analyzed typical experiences of a group that comes together for the express purpose of improving the operating skills of its members.

MURPHY, JACK, "Mr. Average Debater," *Speech Activities*, 9 (Spring 1953), 3, 24.

Presents an interesting composite picture of the average debater based on a study of approximately one thousand former debaters listed in *Who's Who in America 1950-1951*. Results of a questionnaire sent to 180 of these persons provide information regarding their opinions as to the values of debate experience.

QUIMBY, BROOKS, "But Is It Educational?" *Speech Activities*, 9 (Summer 1953), 30-31.

The author questions the educational value of requiring debaters to defend both sides of a proposition. He contends that such a practice is neither necessary nor desirable in a democracy.

ROSEBOROUGH, MARY E., "Experimental Studies of Small Groups," *Psychological Bulletin*, 50 (July 1953), 275-303.

Summarizes and interprets the conclusions of most psychological research pertaining to (1) group vs. individual performance, (2) effects of variations in the social structure of small groups, (3) effects of cultural variables on behavior in small groups, (4) effects of situational variables affecting group behavior, and (5) personality variables affecting the group. While none of the research reported here was drawn from the field of speech, it will be found both interesting and valuable to the student of speech.

SAMPSON, ROBERT C., "Train Executives While They Work," *Harvard Business Review*, 31 (November-December 1953), 42-54.

The head of the Staff Services division of the Chesapeake and Ohio Railway Personnel Department discusses, among other topics, the objectives and organization of problem-solving discussions in industry. Special consideration is given to problems of motivation, leadership, presenting problems for deliberation and handling information and evidence in industrial discussions.

THOMPSON, WAYNE N., "A Study of the Factors Considered by Students in Evaluating Public Discussions," *Speech Monographs*, 22 (November 1953), 268-272.

Report of an experiment testing the ability of college students to evaluate recorded group discussions by means of rating scales setting forth specific aspects of effectiveness. The findings of this and an earlier study by the author suggest that "unless student raters are carefully trained and highly motivated, judging a series of discrete items is either too difficult semantically or too laborious for them to provide meaningful data." Evidence is further adduced to suggest that when students rate discussions to which they listen, "rating scales recording an over-all measurement are as accurate as complex devices combining several evaluations."

TORRANCE, E. PAUL, "Methods of Conducting Critiques of Group Problem-Solving Performance," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 37 (October 1953), 394-398.

This essay reports an experiment having important implications for teachers of group discussion. Testing the effects of different modes of post-discussion criticism and evaluation upon group processes and achievement, the ex-

periment found that structured (contrasted with unguided self-criticism) evaluation produced greater improvement in group processes than unstructured evaluation. Advice about methodology from an expert produced the highest improvement in group methods and effected improvements in the soundness of decisions equalled only by means of structured, guided, but non-authoritarian group evaluation. Self-criticism, "unstructured, non-authoritarian" group-centered evaluation and no criticism operated in descending order upon improvement in groups' decision making.

If subsequent inquiries demonstrate similar relationships between effectiveness in group deliberation and the various forms of post-decision evaluation, teachers of discussion will be able to organize evaluative sessions in the classroom with greatly increased confidence.

Radio and Television

COREY, HERBERT, "TV and a Revolution," *Freeman*, 4 (December 14, 1953), 194-195.

A consideration of the influence of televised discussions, interviews, and speeches upon local politics. The author believes that local station operators are discovering that their viewers endorse "public forum" programming and that the resulting growth of inquiry into and discussion of community problems has already modified political interest and behavior in many areas.

DUNLAP, E. T., AND HOWARD A. STEWART, "Educational Radio Broadcasting," *Junior College Journal*, 24 (December 1953), 207-213.

Eastern Oklahoma A & M College and a selected group of 13 public schools co-operated in the production of a tri-weekly educational program which involved most of the students in these institutions, gained a wide audience in each school area, and developed commendable co-operation between public education and private enterprise in a project related to the public interest.

Instructor, The, 63 (January 1954).

This issue carries an extensive supplement on audio-visual aids to teaching which includes articles by Vera S. Lerner, "A Radio Workshop Is a Good Learning Experience"; Margarett W. Divizia, "New Tools in the Language Arts"; Max Bildersee, "Radio—Common Denominator of Education"; Helen Lochrie, "Television Can Aid Your Learning Program."

LEVENSON, WILLIAM B., "TV in the Classroom," *NEA Journal*, 42 (December 1953), 562.

Makes the point that if TV is to be of maximum value in the classroom, studio and teachers must be linked with mutual understanding and must function co-operatively in the production of programs.

SMITH, JANET MARY, "Radio and Literature," *The Fortnightly*, N.1044 (December 1953), 390-395.

A discussion of the problems of and possibilities for the poet and dramatist in adapting their art to radio. The problems include the treatment of dramatic scenes, the treatment of narrative, the number of characters, and the lack of visual cues which demands more of the spoken word. The possibilities include the freedom from restriction of time and place: the radio dramatist can have as many scenes as he likes and can "skip years with a bar or two of music." Discussions do well on radio; "domestic dramas" are preferred by many listeners although they restrict the range of the writer. Comedy is somewhat at a disadvantage since it is difficult to write comedy for voice alone.

SPAULDING, KENNETH L., "Science on the TV Screen," *Journal of Education*, 136 (October 1953), 14-15+.

A listing of 443 science programs shown regularly during the 1952-53 school year, plus 11 that went on during the summer of 1953. *Space Patrol*, for example, is an adventure series; *Wonder World* explodes unscientific beliefs; *Your Family Doctor* gives accurate information on medical procedures; *Nature of Things* applies technical scientific truths in a practical way; *Mr. Wizard* discusses and demonstrates the "how" of commonplace things.

WALKER, WINIFRED, "Bob: Boy TV Actor—Once," *Understanding the Child*, 22 (October 1953), 112-113.

A brief case report of an emotionally handicapped child with serious reading difficulty who was helped to better adjustment and reading improvement through his receiving recognition and status; in this case the agent was television.

WALKER, WINIFRED, "Children's Intergroup TV Project," *Audio-Visual Guide*, 20 (December 1953), 24.

A brief report of the encouraging results achieved at the University of Utah's Graduate School of Educational Administration in attempting to use television to destroy prejudice

among children of different countries. "Unusual plots, genuinely friendly children, clever beginnings and suspense to the end caused the shows to produce the desired effect. . . ."

SPEECH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
Childhood Education, 30 (November 1953).

This issue is devoted to the theme "Observing Children." Included are articles dealing with various methods and objectives of observation. Of particular interest is the article entitled, "What Are Children Really Saying?" wherein it is suggested that children's talking can be a valuable index to their home environment, individual traits, and emotional problems.

DUNN, MARGARET M., "Helping Paul to Hear," *Today's Speech*, 2 (January 1954), 21-24.

The case study of the special training given a school age child with a hearing loss in a rural community. Individual acoustic training, group training, short periods in regular school and at a rehabilitation center have brought him to a point of using much more understandable speech and of receiving more acceptance in his group.

EVERHART, RODNEY W., "The Relationship Between Articulation and Other Developmental Factors in Children," *The Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, 18 (December 1953), 332-338.

When a group of children with articulatory deficiencies in grades one to six were compared with a control group, there were no significant differences observed with respect to: onset of holding head up, crawling, sitting alone, walking, talking, first tooth, grip, height, weight, or handedness. A positive correlation, however, was found to exist between low intelligence and incidence of articulatory disorders.

LAYCOCK, S. R., "There Must Be No Forgotten Child," *The Crippled Child*, 31 (December 1953), 8-9.

The community must assume its rightful responsibility for the education of handicapped children, no matter what specialized facilities for learning they require. To develop public understanding of the problem is a task of mental hygiene.

MACNUTT, ENA G., "A Program for the Hard of Hearing Child in Public School," *The Volta Review*, 45 (October 1953), 385-386.

Differentiation between slight and severe cases is important. Careful lip-reading training done

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separately from training in speech is essential for both types of cases; some should be done as group work. Arrangements for securing parent cooperation must be made.

McCONNELL, FREEMAN E., "The Right School Program for Each Hearing Handicapped Child," *Exceptional Children*, 20 (December 1953), 111-115+.

Early diagnosis is necessary and must be followed by special training and by the use of the hearing aid at the earliest possible time to provide the most normal development of speech and language comprehension. Both day schools and residential schools are necessary, and both must be extended and improved if the best kind of education is to be rendered every hearing impaired child.

MERRITT, FRANK WESTLEY, "How Is Your Child's Speech?" *Today's Speech*, 2 (January 1954), 19-21.

A child's speech is delayed if he has no speech at all at 3 years of age or if it is highly distorted at 5. Some inaccuracies may well be expected in the speech of normal children through the 8th year. Serious delays are most often caused by low intelligence, poor memory span, complete or partial deafness, or prolonged illness during infancy rather than by any fault of the parents. The author emphasizes, however, a need for the parent to motivate the child's speech, to encourage babbling, and to reward the child for his speech efforts.

MYKLEBUST, HELMER R., "Towards a New Understanding of the Deaf Child," *American Annals of the Deaf*, 98 (September 1953), 345-357.

Language as the problem of the deaf is an over-simplification; the problem also includes the pervasive effects of deafness on other areas, such as general behavior, peripheral vision, social maturity, intellectual capacity, visual perception, and personality adjustment. Primary concern should be felt for the total happiness of the child.

RAAB, GEORGE E., "Many Sides to Creativity," *Childhood Education*, 30 (December 1953), 182-190.

Believing that "the strength of the home, school, community, or the nation itself, depends upon the degree to which each of the persons in it is realizing his own capacities," the author contends that creativity is basic to such self-realization. The article stresses the

importance of the communicative skills in various creative experiences.

SHAFTEL, GEORGE, "Education for Human Relations," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, 22 (November 1953), 112-119.

Points out that a major cause of many serious learning difficulties among children can be found in problems of human relations. Sociometrics is introduced as one way of studying and dealing with such problems. The Los Angeles County Human Relations Project is cited as a highly successful venture in teacher education on the subject in question.

TEMPLIN, MILDRED C., "Norms on a Screening Test of Articulation for Ages Three Through Eight," *The Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders*, 18 (December 1953), 323-331.

Four-hundred eighty subjects, ages three to eight, were given a 50-item screening test of articulation. Results showed high correlations with those of diagnostic tests for single age levels. Thus the screening test should be useful in identifying satisfactory and unsatisfactory articulation as a basis for selecting those who would most benefit from special training.

WEITZ, HENRY, "Helping Children Through Understanding," *The Educational Forum*, 18 (November 1953), 20-27.

The author asserts that "A child can develop into a psychologically mature adult if he has the opportunity, from his earliest interpersonal contacts, to acquire mature patterns of behavior. In order for this opportunity to be present, it is essential that the persons in the child's world set models of mature behavior for him to follow and that they provide an atmosphere of understanding within which the child can acquire the behavior." The role of the teacher in establishing an "atmosphere of understanding" is stressed. Three "types" of understanding are considered and evaluated: *sympathy*, *evaluation* and *acceptance*, with the latter advanced as the preferred method because it "provides the kind of psychological climate which will enable the child to make his own self-evaluation and, hence, to gain control over his own feelings and behavior."

WESTLAKE, HAROLD, "The Speech Defective Child," *Exceptional Children*, 20 (November 1953), 56-60.

Writing for this periodical's section: "What is Special about Special Education?" the author summarizes his article by saying: "Although a

realistic perspective of the public school speech correctionist's function emphasizes the teaching rather than the clinical services, this is an area in teaching which requires a unique body of information. The special teacher must be able to analyze the problems of the children referred to him and have a thorough acquaintance with the special techniques and the learn-

ing situations which can develop the best oral language achievement."

WOHLGEMITH, ALMA, "A Fifth Grade Speaks and Writes," *Elementary English*, 30 (December 1953), 506-508.

A resourceful teacher reports how her children combined creative writing and speaking experiences so as to produce productive learning.

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AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

David Potter, *Editor*

THE WRITER AS READER, a Columbia Literary Series album, 12 twelve-inch LPs, SL 190, \$100. Includes one LP, two sides each, for a dozen authors reading from their own works: W. Somerset Maugham, ML 4752, reading "The Three Fat Women of Antibes," and "Gigolo and Gigolette"; Aldous Huxley, ML 4753, reading from "Brave New World"; John Collier, ML 4754, reading "Mary," "DeMortuis," and "Back for Christmas"; Sacheverell Sitwell, ML 4755, reading from "Spain," "Mauretania," and "Roumanian Journey"; John Steinbeck, ML 4756, reading "The Snake" and "Johnny Bear"; Katherine Anne Porter, ML 4757, reading from "Flowering Judas"; Edith Sitwell, ML 4759, reading excerpts from "A Poet's Notebook," "A Notebook on Shakespeare," and from "The Canticle of the Rose and other Poems"; Christopher Isherwood, ML 4760, reading excerpts from "Goodbye to Berlin," "Prater Violet," "The Condor and the Cows"; Truman Capote, ML 4761, reading "Children on Their Birthdays"; Sir Osbert Sitwell, ML 4763, reading from "Left Hand, Right Hand!"; and William Saroyan "Talking and Trying To Read From Some of His Novels, Plays and Stories."

This erudite experimental study was born in the brain of Goddard Lieberson of Columbia and carried out by him. His purpose, given in the preface to the elaborate and beautifully executed volume accompanying the album, is stated thus: "if not to frustrate death's capacity for stilling the tongue, at least, to inaugurate archives which would perpetuate the sound of the writer's voice and therefore a dimension of his personality otherwise lost."

Mr. Lieberson deplors the lack of aural records of authors whose voices and personalities might have been preserved but were not although many gifted writers have lived since the invention of the gramophone. In music, scattered records have been collected and made available, in speech there is almost nothing, and for both there is nothing comparable to camera records existing as "an aural panorama of our past."

Success in these recordings is due to long-

playing records. Sheer bulk eliminated the conventional 78 rpm kind. This album represents more than seventy records of the 78 vintage. Mr. Lieberson explains also that tape-recording eliminated most of the terrors for untrained, inexperienced readers since editing could eliminate errors and slips.

However, Mr. Lieberson explains carefully that reading ability "was by no means the criterion adopted . . . since the writings of an author are an expression of his total psychic structure, his voice too (no matter what quality) would express to some degree the spirit of the written words. . . . Thus it is that dulcet tones, subtle gradations of volume, dramatic spacing, all carefully planned and rehearsed ahead of time, play no part in these recordings. They are on the contrary, dramatically undramatic, as is so often the case when we are confronted with unvarnished reality."

Seven English and Five American writers are represented. Ernest Hemingway and William Faulkner were asked to participate but did not do so for reasons of their own. Nor were all of the materials read by authors here represented put in this album. We are promised that further readings by them and readings of other authors will be produced from time to time. The idea is tremendous; probably from the viewpoint of schools and speech teachers, the expense is the only false note. Let him who has \$100 invest immediately in a highly successful means of entertainment, learning, and growth in understanding.

Harrison Smith, writing in the *Saturday Review of Literature*, November 28, 1953, under the title of "Writers As Readers" has made an interesting and stimulating review of these records. There is no need to repeat what he has said. A review in this magazine must necessarily cover those points which speech teachers need to know. It must evaluate the records for teacher and student use.

First, since writers are reading and we are interested largely in reading ability and its effect upon understanding of literature, we need to discuss that feature. There are two aspects of this idea: (1) the worth of oral reading in the presentation of literature, and (2) the author as reader. Speech teachers are

familiar with the few examples we have of authors trying to read their own material (mostly poetry) and, with the possible exception of Robert Frost, are not much impressed by them. They are dull rather than inspired. There are those of us who have been known to wish authors might stick to writing and let trained readers interpret. With a few exceptions, this does not seem to be the case in these recordings.

Irwin Edman, the noted writer and philosopher who teaches at Columbia University, wrote the introduction to the volume accompanying the records and has given us a memorable essay on the necessity and worth of oral reading. He states what speech teachers have long known but what other people seem not to have realized: that literature began in oral form. "The rhapsode who half spoke, half intoned Greek poetry was honored only a little less than the poet himself. In both the East and West the teller of tales was a famed character; in the castles of the West, in the market places of the East the spinner of stories—who was often the inventor of them—was precious to people whose imaginative hunger outran their ability to read . . . there would be sound reasons why the reading aloud of a work of fiction or other works of imaginative prose by their own writers, is an important revival of something essential and profound in the art of literature."

Speech teachers also know that there are cycles of success or "fashion" in oral reading. This does not mean a lack of worth at any time; it only means that for some reason or reasons, attention of people is put on other forms. Nero and his enforced attendance at the public reading of his poems was a symbol of the decadence of Rome and its literature. Elocution in America used, as an exhibitionist technique, helped turn the attention of people from great readers like S. H. Clark. Loss of prejudice against the theatre turned people to acting of plays rather than the reading of them. Movies became a fad and a craze blotting out for a time the worth of interpretive reading. People forget the extraordinary success of the reader, Dickens.

However, as we have cycles of weather and fashion, we have cycles in entertainment and methods of learning. Interpretive reading is again coming into its own. Emlyn Williams, in his one-man shows, reading Dickens, has barnstormed quite as successfully as did Dickens himself. Charles Laughton has set a style both in individual reading and in *Don Juan in Hell*.

John Brown's Body was a tremendous innovation along these lines, and a great success. (By the way, the recording of that masterpiece, a magnificent job, was voted by twenty-six critics, as reported in *SRL Critics' Christmas Poll*, 1953, as the favorite miscellaneous recording. It was second only to Toscanini's *Otello*.) The least that can be said of these recordings is that they are an evidence of a trend toward the vitalizing of literature, and a regard for the importance of the speaking voice in appreciating literature. Therefore, the use of the recordings is one good way of acquainting students with the power of oral reading.

If one evaluates the effectiveness of the reading as a possible guide to students of oral reading, it can be said that on the whole voice quality is not too bad, and that perhaps the poor voices can teach what not to do in a not-too-negative fashion. Generally speaking, the English voices are far superior to the American, the women are better readers than the men with the exception of Somerset Maugham whose reading of "The Three Fat Women of Antibes" is as faultless as one could ask. One fact seems apparent: we have a great deal to learn about diction and voice quality from English voices.

Edith Sitwell is truly "magnificent and catastrophic." There has probably not been a more authentic nor artistic reading of Lady Macbeth than she gives; her erudite discussions of Shakespeare have almost the power of poetry, and her poetry reading and writing are so synchronized as to make one feel the two could never be separated and either be whole. Katherine Anne Porter reads "The Flowering Judas" with an effect of poetry, of mysticism, of ethereal existence in a mundane world of inevitable tragedy. Her rather high thin voice quietly weaves a beautiful web of mystery and the hearer is enthralled. Edna Ferber has a fairly business-like, good middle-Western voice, cultured and expressive, fitting in rather satisfactory fashion the story of a middle-aged man pitifully and unsuccessfully trying to make up for a youth he never had. Her voice is a little high and hard and she has a voice pattern which is not too distracting. She makes her stories effective.

Somerset Maugham is not only a master story teller, he is a master reader and the one story "Three Fat Women of Antibes," is worth the price of admission. It is truly remarkable. Next in interest is John Collier whose voice, personality, and story (Mary) are inextricably

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Huxley and Edith Sitwell's two brothers, Sacheverell and Sir Osbert, have typical Oxford voices showing the high order of culture, scholarship, and social position of the three men. Their personality as revealed here might well be a valuable study for literature or social history classes. Especially are the three Sitwells a rich source of personality research.

Isherwood and Capote have voices which fit their material. Isherwood's is English and rather high pitched, but not unpleasant; Capote's is slightly Southern and very high pitched and childish, also affording an excellent character study. However, his voice exactly fits the material of this particular story, both story and voice being highly effective.

Steinback's voice sounds like his stories which in the case of the two selected are not too pleasant or credible. He can be magnificent in his writing; here he is not. Saroyan is "calculated ingenuousness" personified both in the material selected and his manner of presentation. Any contribution he makes is purely accidental. He is Charles Laughton at his coy worst on an LP record. It is fatal.

If teachers find it valuable for students to study authors in preparation for understanding of literature, there is here afforded a priceless opportunity. The accompanying volume presents a picture and thumb-nail biography of each but that is the smallest part. Here we have the author himself coming through his stories; we no longer have to wonder what he meant; now we know. It is not alone a matter of rhythm, of phrasing, but inflection, nuance, shading. Every speech teacher knows that the voice is a more accurate photograph of a person than any picture which can be taken. From his voice we know the spirit of the author, his philosophy of life, his approach to that portion of the world he writes about.

Most of this material will have to be used with advanced students; part of it could be used with a high school senior literature class; most of it is beyond their grasp, but these great moments of life-come-alive can certainly reach any student faster than his own inexperienced reading of it. Most of the material is very sophisticated. It cannot be gulped, hurried, or listened to at one sitting. Most of it requires re-hearing, contemplation, and (certainly for students) liberal discussion and guides. We can heartily agree, however, with Mr. Smith that "a new Dimension has been added to the art

of creative literature . . . an experience to be repeated and certainly never forgotten."

MOIREE COMPERE,
Michigan State College

SHOULD SENATE DEBATE BE LIMITED?

American film forum. 516 Fifth Avenue, New York 36, N. Y. 15 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Rental, \$135 for nine issues or \$15 monthly.

Once a month from September through May the American Film Forum releases a new film presenting a warmly debated topic of current interest. This number is the third in this year's series. Each film has as its moderator Marquis Childs, the well-known newspaper columnist, plus at least two prominent participants in public life. In this case they are Senator Paul A. Douglas from Illinois and Senator Allen J. Ellender from Louisiana. In view of the traditional stand of the southern members of Congress favoring the filibuster it hardly seems necessary to indicate which sides the two gentlemen chose to defend. It should also be noted that despite a format suggesting that this is a discussion, the term is used very loosely, and the occasion should more correctly be identified as a debate. The purpose of the series is undoubtedly to supply audiences with a lively handling of current issues in such a provocative manner as to stimulate further thinking and debate.

Mr. Childs, seated between the two debaters, opens the film by introducing the two men and by giving a brief history of their careers, as well as the topic toward which their arguments are to be directed. He then turns to Senator Douglas for his opening contentions on the problem of limiting Senate debate. Douglas begins by defining filibuster as an effort to prevent voting and delay passage of a bill by prolonged discussion. He adds that at the present time it is possible to limit debate in the Senate provided two-thirds of that body can be persuaded to agree to such limitation. He then established two arguments which any debater would identify readily as need issues. First, he argues, many important pieces of legislation have been shelved by filibuster. Most notable among these are legislation guaranteeing civil rights and the Fair Employment Practices Act. Second, there is no tyranny of the majority in the Senate, since minority groups have the same power of representation as the majority. In fact, adds Douglas, the majority of senators represent less than one-fourth of the population of the United States.

Douglas then takes a compromising position characteristic of legislators by agreeing we do not have to do away with the filibuster completely, but merely restrict its use more severely.

Senator Ellender wastes no time in clashing directly with his colleague. He asserts that no bill has been defeated by the filibuster in the past seventeen years, the length of his tenure in the senate. He then qualifies this statement by adding "no bill which I consider constitutional." He refutes the Douglas effort on the majority-minority argument by asserting that the rights of minorities must be protected, and that the majorities always get their way in the Senate. With some stretching of the cause-effect relationship he declares that the late Franklin Delano Roosevelt failed in his effort to pack the Supreme Court because of the filibuster. After monopolizing the remaining time on the film with purely irrelevant matter, Ellender concludes that the filibuster is a "good, healthy thing" and should in no way be limited.

The reactions of the two classes in Argument who viewed the film were marked, in some instances almost violent. The sympathy for Douglas was pronounced (even among the Republicans!) and a strong opposition to Ellender, his position and his methods of debate, was quite obvious. One would scarcely recommend the film as providing examples of

ethical techniques of sound debating. On the other hand, if the instructor in argumentation or debate wished to illustrate graphically the various classifications of fallacies, the film offers a splendid source, for Senator Ellender uses at least one of every type. In addition, Ellender offers an example of how effective the filibuster can be, for once Douglas has made his initial statement, he is forced to retire in silence while his colleague holds forth for the remainder of the time on every subject except the one under examination. For stimulation purposes, then, and for an illustration of "how not to" the film is acceptable.

One should add that the rental includes a discussion leader's handbook with each film, so that a forum period can be easily conducted at the conclusion of the film. Debate coaches also will be alert to the fact that one of the series is on the problem of free trade, the current proposition for colleges and universities.

Technically the film is excellent, argumentatively it could be useful, economically it is expensive unless the rental can be shared by other interested departments. The most surprising thing about it is how Senator Ellender could agree to its release after viewing it himself!

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THE BULLETIN BOARD

Elise Hahn, *Editor*

The *Bulletin Board* welcomes news from teacher training institutions and from teachers of speech at all levels. Discussions of new courses and materials, controversy over techniques, and descriptions of successful organization of speech courses and workshops in school systems will be particularly valuable to our readers.

TEEN AGERS TALK IT OVER

Although fifteen hundred miles apart, the teen agers of the Des Moines High Schools, Iowa, and the students at Lynbrook High School, Lynbrook, New York, find through a series of tape exchange programs that they have the same viewpoints on many of their mutual problems.

The Des Moines students, under the direction of Mr. Don Ames, program director of Station KPDS, have been having a series of discussions with the students of Lynbrook High School under the supervision of Miss Eudora Lampman, speech teacher. The fifteen minute discussion of the Des Moines students was recorded and sent air mail to Lynbrook, where the teen agers recorded their opinions on the same topic. Then the tape was returned to Des Moines where it was broadcast over Station KPDS located in the Technical High School of that city.

On the first program, the Iowa teen agers pictured their community and in turn the New York group described theirs. Then they discussed the problem of the use of the family car, highway safety, dating, allowances, teen age marriages, reading habits, getting along with others, and their futures. The series was called *Teen Agers Talk It Over* and included sixteen programs.

Do other high schools have similar programs?

At the College of the Pacific, Stockton, California, Dr. Robert West will be the visiting lecturer this summer. A ten week resident Clinic for all types of speech cases will be held. A three week TV workshop in cooperation with the local television station will begin in July. Also, this will be the fourth year

for the summer Theatre Playhouse at the old Fallon Theatre at Columbia, California.

The University of Georgia will give special attention this summer to organizing work for classroom teachers who wish to become acquainted with speech problems.

The University of Houston will offer its second annual summer institute for high school students. Classes in Acting, Beginning Debate, Advanced Debate, Individual Events, and Radio-TV will be given in the morning of each day at the institute, while afternoons and evenings will be spent in recreation and study. A Speech Workshop will also be conducted at the university, with eight members of the faculty presenting lectures, demonstrations, and discussions of the teaching of speech. The Drama Workshops will be held both sessions, giving experience in directing, acting, and technical theatre.

Michigan State College announces that "The Role of Radio and Television as Mass Media" will be the theme of the Ninth Annual Radio and Television Conference on March 5. According to Robert P. Crawford, Director of Radio-TV training in the Speech Department and conference chairman, this annual meeting is devoted to bringing educational and commercial radio and television people together to discuss matters of mutual concern. Dr. P. H. Tannenbaum, Director of Television Research for WKAR-TV, will open the meeting with a description of how mass communication works. Speeches will follow on the responsibilities of mass media, on programming for rural areas, and on the treatment of the family group from industry's point of view. Those attending will tour the new studios of WKAR-TV which went on the air for six-hour daily operation in January.

Ohio State University will hold a special seminar-workshop in the speech manifestations of cerebral palsy. Fellowships, scholarships, clinical graduate assistantships, and research appointments are available in the speech science division of the Department of Speech.

The University of Pittsburgh is offering a television workshop. The Westinghouse Corporation, radio station KDKA, and the Dumont Station WDTV are cooperating with this course, with KDKA furnishing studios and equipment, and WDTV furnishing the instructor, Mr. Warren Dana. One of the aims of the course is to train teachers and community leaders for the new educational station WQED-TV. This new station is owned and operated by the Metropolitan Pittsburgh Educational Television Corporation and is located on the Pittsburgh campus. On this campus, also, Miss Barbara McIntyre is developing work in Children's Theatre and Creative Dramatics. Two plays have recently been taken on tour in the Pittsburgh schools. New faculty members in the Speech Department include Dr. Aubrey Epstein, Lloyd Welden Jr., Michael McHale, Warren Dana, Jay Cherry, Miss George Ann Bennett, and Lieutenant James Green.

At the University of Southern California, Dr. Loren Reid, chairman of the Speech Department of the University of Missouri, will be the visiting professor. A full offering in all speech areas will be given this summer.

At Stanford University, Dr. James Carrell, director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic at the University of Washington, will be visiting professor during the summer. He will offer courses in cerebral palsy, cleft palate, and aphasia. Special clinics will be organized in cerebral palsy and cleft palate. The United Cerebral Palsy Association of Peninsula Cities, an affiliate of the national association, has announced its sponsorship of a special clinical and training program at Stanford University in speech training for cerebral palsied children. A special clinic for pre-school cerebral palsied children is involved, as well as intensive courses in speech and language problems. Research is planned, in addition to the preparation of teaching and parent counseling materials. Several assistantships are open for next year in the Speech and Hearing Clinic under Dr. Virgil Anderson.

The National Forensic League announces that its National Student Congress and National Forensic Tournament will be held in Greensburg, Pennsylvania, on June 22-25.